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ABSTRACT

This study is an evaluation of the case study method as it is currently used in the Institute for College and University Administrators. The subjects of the study were 36 recently appointed academic deans and vice-presidents who participated in the American Council on Education's fall 1971 institute for academic deans held at the University of Chicago. The subjects were divided into two 18-member subgroups. The subgroups were identically matched in every feasible way. One subgroup was arbitrarily assigned the case-study method and the other the paper-seminar method. All subjects were tested before and following their respective experimental sessions with an 18-item attitude questionnaire. A comparison of the results across subgroups revealed case study was a more effective and efficient learning method than the reading-discussion method. Eleven appendices contain supporting documents, materials used in the study, and functional guidelines for planning professional training programs and developing administrative case studies. (MJM)

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THE USE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF THE CASE STUDY METHOD IN THE INSERVICE TRAINING OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

by

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HE 004 162

November, 1972

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C. F. F.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Since its inception in 1955, the Institute for College and University Administrators has conducted a total of sixty-nine professional development programs for top-level administrators in American higher education. With almost all of these programs, the case study method has been used as the main teaching technique. In fact, until the Institute affiliated with the American Council on Education in 1965, practically the entire week of each institute consisted of the study and group analysis of authentic case studies in college and university administration. During the past seven years the proportion of each week's program spent on case studies gradually has been reduced to about one-third so that the case approach could be complemented with other seminars and small-group discussions. Nonetheless, the case study method remains one of the most distinctive features of the programs conducted by the Institute.

The theory behind the original and continuing use of the case study method is that it is thought to provide a dimension of realism, facilitating greater vicarious involvement and identification with the problems and issues at hand than other more traditional teaching methods. At the same time, it permits the participant to analyze and "problem-solve" in an informal detached atmosphere where peer wisdom is shared, and in a manner which is more conducive to sound, objective decision making than if he were "alone" on the actual firing line back on his own campus.

In their evaluations of the Institute over the years, most participants have acclaimed the case study method as an exceptionally meaningful learning experience and as one of the major strengths of the Institute. Their comments tend to reinforce the basic rationale for utilizing the case approach. However, when it comes to ascertaining in what specific ways the Institute, and particularly the case study experience, modified their resulting administrative behavior, responses from "alumni," although enthusiastic, have been quite general and vague. They refer to the gaining of new ideas, a better appreciation of the administrative process, and a greater awareness of current issues, theories, and practices; they say they are better able to anticipate and handle problems, and that their self-confidence has been enhanced.

Beyond such theoretical and impressionistic appraisals, however, learning experiences within the Institute program have never in its seventeen-year history been objectively evaluated. It is assumed that the case study method has a decided impact on the participants' attitudes and their subsequent administrative behavior, but this has never been empirically tested. One difficulty in investigating the degree to which any behavioral change may be attributable to a specific learning experience such as a case study session is that it is virtually impossible to determine the effects, and sometimes even the presence, of intervening influences. Consequently, even behavioral change observed objectively by others is not a conclusive indication of the effectiveness of a particular learning event in and of itself.

Nevertheless, assuming that behavior is a manifestation of attitude, any change in behavior should reflect a change in attitude. Conversely, it might be assumed that any change in attitude would influence any relevant behavior that follows. Thus, one basic assumption for this study is that attitudinal change is the *sine qua non* of behavioral change. While it is seldom valid to ascribe change in administrative behavior entirely to a specific, earlier learning experience, it would be valid to attribute change in administrative attitudes to an immediately concluded learning experience under appropriate experimental conditions. Comparing such change with that demonstrated by a control group that has had a different but parallel learning experience, then, would indicate the relative effectiveness of the two teaching methods.

Purpose and Focus of the Study

This study is an evaluation of the case study method as it is currently used in the Institute for College and University Administrators. It is based on the hypothesis that the case study experience has more impact on most learners, as measured by positive change in their attitudes, and is therefore a more effective teaching/learning method, than the more traditional reading-discussion method. The purpose was to empirically test this assumption during an actual Institute session by comparing the amount and direction of attitude change effected by the case study vis-a-vis the position paper-seminar method.

The subjects of the study were thirty-six recently-appointed academic deans and vice presidents who participated in the American Council on Education's fall, 1971, Institute for Academic Deans held at the University of Chicago. For the experiment the participants were divided into two balanced subgroups of eighteen subjects each. These subgroups were identically matched in every feasible way--by type and size of institution, and by ages, disciplines, experience, and other known factors. One subgroup was arbitrarily assigned the case study method and the other, the paper-seminar method, both of which dealt with the same topics and issues. (In fact, the position paper was authored by the same man who was the college president in the case study.)

All subjects were tested before and again following their respective experimental sessions with an eighteen-item attitude questionnaire that contained the major principles common to both the position paper and the case study. An analysis of subgroup and individual score changes determined the significance of the changes in subgroup attitudes. Since the retest time-lag was minimal and the retest immediately followed the treatment, the score changes were real, and, to the extent they were significant, they could be attributed specifically to the respective learning experiences. A comparison of the results across subgroups revealed the relative effectiveness of the case study method of teaching administration with the most common, similarly structured technique, namely, the reading-discussion method.

Need for the Study

As program director of the Institute for College and University Administrators, I am faced in the planning of every Institute program not only with decisions about the subject content, but also with the selection of the most meaningful, effective, and yet practical learning experiences for the participants. Since there are a limited number of sessions in the Institute week, this frequently means choosing between a case study and another type of seminar session--such as the discussion of a panel presentation, lecture, or position paper--that deals with the same subject. The findings of this study on the effectiveness of the case method will be most helpful in deciding on the extent of the continued use of administrative cases in the Institute's future programs.

The results of this study will also influence the decision to develop additional administrative case studies. With the continued use of the case method, new studies must regularly be added to the Institute's repertoire--cases that deal with the latest concerns, issues, and problems in the rapidly changing field of academic administration. Such case development requires the allocation of valuable time, effort and financing, all of which must be readily accountable in relationship to other alternatives, particularly in light of the Institute's limited resources.

But the justification for this study reaches beyond its obvious and immediate implications for the Institute for College and University Administrators. The use of the case study method might appropriately be expanded in other training programs in the administration of higher education, and, perhaps even more important, be incorporated into the majority of programs not now utilizing the method. Furthermore, this study may provide the basis for the preparation of a current "Case Book of Problems in Academic Administration" for use by institutions, consortia, state-wide systems, national and regional associations, and graduate schools of education in both pre-service and in-service training programs for college administrators. Such application would be predicated upon the need for better training of administrators, as described in Chapter II.

Underlying these practical considerations as evidence of the need for this study is the fact that practically no empirical research has been conducted on the effectiveness of the case study method in teaching academic administration. There have been two formal studies of the

Institute for College and University Administrators, one in 1959 by McConnell and Wicke[1] and the other in 1967 by Wert,[2] but both of these evaluations were based upon surveys of former participants. While they revealed generally positive reaction to the case study method, neither included objective empirical data.

In McKeachie's 1962 review of the research on methods of teaching, he found that, though many studies were inconclusive, there was some evidence that the lecture method was superior for learning specific information, while the discussion method was superior for attaining higher level objectives such as critical thinking and problem solving. This he attributed in part to the fact that discussions were student-centered and provided more feedback to the learner.[3] Although McKeachie does not discuss the case technique, per se, his research review and observations nonetheless have implications for the use of the case discussion method of teaching.

A more recent, unique investigation by Dubin and Taveggia pooled data from ninety-one studies on the relationship between achievement and college teaching methods that had been conducted between 1924 and 1965. Comparisons were made among various teaching-learning approaches: lecture, discussion, combinations of the two, independent study, television, and programmed materials. Their findings demonstrated that there was no measurable difference among these methods of college instruction when evaluated by student performance on final examinations.[1] The case method itself was not included in this investigation no doubt for the lack of available studies and the fact that it has not been a typical college classroom teaching technique.

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[1] T. R. McConnell and Myron F. Wicke, "Evaluation of the Institutes for Presidents and Academic Deans Held By The Institute for College and University Administrators," Boston, 1959. (Typewritten.)

[2] Robert J. Wert, "Evaluation of the Institute for College and University Administrators," Washington, D. C., 1967. (Mimeographed.)

[3] Wilbert J. McKeachie, "Procedures and Techniques of Teaching: A Survey of Experimental Studies," in The American College, ed. by Nevitt Sanford (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962), pp. 312-32.

Realizing the potential for the use of "case studies" and "simulation" as supplementary teaching aids in the college classroom, in 1963 a Northwestern University research team compared the effectiveness of these two approaches as a supplement to the lecture in teaching three undergraduate courses in decision making. Their conclusions indicated that there was no significant difference between the case method and simulation in either stimulating student interest or in the learning of facts and/or principles. They did find, however, that students generally perceived the case method as preferable to the use of simulation techniques.[2]

A later study by Rickard in 1966 perhaps most closely approaches objectives similar to those of this current study. He compared the lecture-discussion method with the use of simulated case studies during an eight-week project involving forty-six graduate students in student personnel administration at Indiana University. While he found no significant difference between the instructional groups as measured by their performance on "in-basket" test items, attitude questionnaire responses did indicate more self-perceived value from the case method than from the lecture discussions.[1]

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[1] Robert Dubin and Thomas C. Taveggia, The Teaching-Learning Paradox (Eugene, Oregon: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1968), 78 pp.

[2] Lee F. Anderson and others, A Comparison of Simulation, Case Studies, and Problem Papers in Teaching Decision Making (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University, 1964), 92 pp.

A check for any other empirical research on the effectiveness of the case study method was conducted through the System Development Corporation's "ORBIT," which made a national search of all documents on "higher education" and "teacher education" in the files of the nineteen clearinghouses of the U.S.O.E.'s Educational Resources Information Center.[2] This search revealed that there was no information available on the use of case studies or role playing or simulation in the professional education, training, or development of college or university administrators.

Finally, a perusal of the recently-published Inventory of Current Research on Postsecondary Education, 1972, virtually confirms that no comparable type of research has been recently completed or is currently being conducted.[3] In fact, this comprehensive survey of over 2,000 scholars and researchers in American higher education discloses only five research projects on the training of college-level administrative personnel, including this dissertation.[4]

Such a dearth of existing objective research on the case method, then, provides additional evidence of the need for this study, for if the method indeed is to have a continuing and particularly an expanded role in the preparation of administrators in higher education, then additional empirical investigation is necessary not only to justify, but to facilitate it.

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[1] Scott T. Rickard, The Application of Audio-Visual Materials and Simulation to Modify the Harvard Case Study Method for Preparing Student Personnel Administrators (Bloomington: Indiana University, 1966), 153 pp.

[2] ORBIT is a computerized, on-line, interactive, national data retrieval system operated cooperatively by SDC and ERIC.

[3] JB Lon Hefferlin and others, Inventory of Current Research on Postsecondary Education, 1972 (Berkeley, California: Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, University of California, 1972), 291 pp.

[4] Besides this study, the other four, yet unpublished, include: a survey of improving administrative training programs, reactions to simulation exercises in junior college administration and in campus "crisis" training, and a survey of current administrative internship programs.

Definitions and Basic Assumptions

Bauer has defined the "case study" as a "written record of human experience centered in a problem or issue faced by a person, a group of persons, or an organization."[1] The administrative case, for the purposes of this study, may be more specifically defined as the factual account of an authentic campus event, situation, and/or problem that requires administrative decision making. A more complete description of the case method is contained in chapter III.

Cases are essentially a form of "simulation," for they represent an authentic operational situation. They do not achieve the ultimate in simulation, however, unless they incorporate role-playing on the part of the discussant-participants. Simulation is a situation in which a participant assumes and realistically performs a role, going beyond contemplation and discussion by actually "playing out" a half-finished scenario. The use of "in-basket" materials, role-playing games, and confrontation tapes are examples of increasingly popular simulation techniques.

A position paper is a treatise on some subject that argues a particular position and often advocates certain courses of action. The position paper used in this study will be described in chapter IV.

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[1] Ronald C. Bauer, Cases in College Administration (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p. 31.

The terms "institute," "workshop," and "seminar" are often used interchangeably to mean a short-term meeting for instruction. All emphasize open discussion and the free exchange of ideas, methods and principles. Sometimes "workshop" more specifically implies inservice learning or updating of skills for personnel already employed. "Seminar" suggests a conference of advanced or experienced participants; a seminar can also describe a brief single meeting on a specific topic or problem, and might be one part of a longer institute, workshop or conference. The "institutes" of the Institute for College and University Administrators are short-term (up to one week) conferences, which include both seminar and workshop sessions. In the one sense, a case discussion session may be considered both a seminar and a workshop in and of itself.

A "participant" in the Institute is one who attends as a "student" or learner. With regard to the particular institute in this study, the participants were all major academic officers who had applied and were accepted for participation in the Institute for Academic Deans. The "subjects" referred to in this study were all participants in the Institute; however, since two people were absent from the experimental session, only thirty-six of the thirty-eight participants were subjects in the study.

The Institute for College and University Administrators operates on the assumption that many recently-appointed top-level institutional executives both need and desire the opportunity for professional development to help them improve their administrative awareness and decision-making competency. It further believes that the case study method, through providing a dimension of realism, is a useful technique in developing administrative concepts, insights, and skills necessary for effective academic decision making.

This study was based on the supposition that various instructional methods differ in their learning effectiveness, and that it is possible to determine such differences through empirical research. It assumed that measured attitude change on the part of Institute participants would be prerequisite to any administrative behavioral change, and that any significant attitude change registered at the immediate conclusion of a particular learning experience could be attributed to the effects of that specific experience. It further assumed that a comparison of any such attitude changes between groups having different learning experiences would indicate the relative impact of the teaching methods that were used.

For the purpose of this study, "attitude" is defined as a posture or position with regard to certain stated principles or opinions. While such attitudes may well reflect individual feelings or emotions generated during the learning experience, "attitude change" used here refers only to the measurable changes in individual positions, and not to affective changes in themselves.

The instrument used to measure attitude change was an eighteen-item questionnaire (see Appendix G) specifically designed for this experiment. It is believed that it was clearly understandable and sufficiently discriminating in its item options to provide adequate choice and thus to accurately measure attitude change, but not too discriminating so as to be confusing and hence reduce the reliability of the instrument. Although various individuals obviously interpreted the items in light of their own reactional biographies, it was assumed that each subject's interpretation would be consistent across the brief duration of the experiment, and therefore that any significant differences between "before" and "after" test scores would be attributable to changes in attitudes rather than changes in item interpretation.

Limitations of the Study

Although the thirty-six subjects included in this study were representative of recently-appointed academic deans applying for participation in the Institute, it cannot necessarily be assumed that they were representative of the total population of new academic officers at U. S. colleges and universities. Nonetheless, they did represent a cross section of the total population of baccalaureate-granting institutions.

In matching the subgroups, it was not possible from the information available to allow for such elusive factors as intelligence, motivation, or individual cognitive styles. There was no way to determine, therefore, how "impressionable" the subjects were. Nor was it practicable within the design and time restrictions of the study to take into account initial attitude differences, but this was not considered critical since it was the change in attitudes that would be decisive to the study. The subgroups were matched however by institutional variables and such known individual characteristics as age, experience, earned degrees, and, perhaps most significant, academic disciplines. In this sense, the matching was not in all instances "pairing" as might have been possible with identical twins, but rather an overall matching by subgroup to attain a maximum balance of identifiable traits.

While all subjects contributed comments during their respective subgroup discussion sessions, no measure was made of individual participation, i.e., the number of times each subject entered into the discussion nor the nature of his comments. This would have introduced a "risk" factor into both sessions, and if at all suspected, could have inappropriately influenced the results. Nor was it within the purpose of this empirical study to more than simply speculate as to what may have happened within the affective domain of learning during the experimental sessions. Rather, the major focus was on the learning outcomes, as evidenced by the differences between the participants' "before" and "after" questionnaire responses. Any significant shifts in attitude (i.e., position), it was felt, could be attributed to the respective treatment methods.

The total duration of each subgroup's experimental session was one hour and thirty minutes. While this was a relatively brief period in which to effect attitude change, it nevertheless was the same length of time that is typically spent in the discussion of an Institute case study. The real test of bridging the learning-to-practice gap, of course, is manifested in later administrative behavior. But since long-term testing, even if it were practicable, would be subject to intervening influences, the immediate retest for short-term changes in attitude was the most valid criterion for assessing the relative effectiveness of the two teaching/learning methods under investigation in this experiment.

Overview of the Study

This introductory chapter has presented the central problem along with the purpose and focus of this study. It has also discussed the need for such research, some definitions and basic assumptions, and the limitations of the study. The next two chapters provide additional background information which hopefully will help put the study into more meaningful perspective. Chapter II deals with the need for the better preparation and training of college and university administrators in the United States, and presents an overview of several approaches currently being employed, including a section about the Institute for College and University Administrators. Chapter III describes the case study method of teaching administration--its background, philosophy, design, and techniques.

In chapter IV the general methodology of the study is explained in greater detail, including the rationale, design, and procedure. This chapter includes a discussion of the preliminary tasks--selecting the position paper, researching and writing the case study, preparing the attitude questionnaire, and selecting the subjects for the study. It also describes the division of the subjects into balanced subgroups, the "lesson assignments," conducting the two experimental sessions, and how the questionnaire responses were processed.

Chapter V contains the results of the study, an analysis of the data, and an interpretation of the findings. It discusses the significance of subgroup score changes and of the direction and degree of attitude change, relating these changes to subgroup and individual characteristics in light of the two different teaching methods. It also includes an examination of those questionnaire items effecting the greatest differences in attitude change between the two subgroups. Finally, the subgroups' evaluations of the Institute experience are compared with their respective subjects' attitude changes to determine any correlation between the case method experience and Institute rating.

The final chapter summarizes the procedure and the findings of the study, and presents some conclusions, implications, and recommendations regarding the use and effectiveness of the case study method in the in-service training of college and university administrators. Following chapter VI are eleven appendices which contain supporting documents, materials used in the study, and functional guidelines for planning professional training programs and developing administrative case studies.

CHAPTER II

THE PREPARATION OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

The Need for Training

The administrator in higher education has emerged over the years quite obviously to meet specific needs in the operation of the academic institution. Today there is a whole array of "types" of administrators and an even wider, often confusing, array of administrative titles at our colleges and universities. In the simplest terms, we might group them into two general categories: "academic" and "non-academic."

Few administrators fall neatly into one category or the other, however, for although the increasingly complex nature of the institution of higher learning has led us in recent years to more "specialization" within administration, this same development has necessitated greater interaction of administrative functions, requiring improved communication, coordination and cooperation. The "team approach" has been widely advocated in the past few years and "management by objectives" has become a much-discussed technique for formulating policies and implementing programs and practices in a more unified, generally accepted, and effective manner.

The president or chancellor, as the major executive officer of the institution, is the individual charged with the primary responsibility for coordinating the total operation of the college or university. As such, he is involved in both the academic and non-academic areas. The chief "academic" officer is typically the academic vice president, academic dean, or provost, while the chief "non-academic" officer is normally the financial vice president or business officer. These three persons constitute the top administrative "team" at most institutions, and are assisted in the operation of the educational enterprise by other top-level and mid-level administrators and support staff, and, of course, by the faculty itself.

Many, if not most, college administrators still come to their posts with little, if any, administrative experience or formal training for their new campus responsibilities. Of the three major positions just mentioned, this is particularly true of chief academic officers. For example, of those from four-year institutions who have participated in the Institute for Academic Deans during 1971 and 1972, only one-fourth came to their posts from other full-time administrative positions (in most cases, associate or assistant deanships), whereas almost two-thirds came directly from the faculty ranks, only half of them having had any experience as a departmental chairman or head. Less than three out of ten of these newly-appointed deans had taken any formal coursework in education or educational administration.

The traditional route "up" for academic administrators has been from the classroom to a deanship to a presidency. While this appears to have become increasingly the case in the past few decades, statistics on recent participants in the Presidents Institute suggest that a large proportion (45 per cent in this sample) of recently-appointed presidents of four-year institutions still lack previous experience in academic administration. (See Table 1.) Of those coming from the faculty, only half had served as a department chairman. Less than one in four of these new presidents had had any graduate study in the field of education.

TABLE 1

MOST RECENT POSITION BEFORE PRESIDENCY

Years	Study	Full-Time Administrative Post in Higher Education	Faculty (Including Department Chairmen)	Position Outside Higher Education
1947-48	Kunkel's Study[1] (N=499)	28%	47%	15%
1961-62	Presidents Institutes (N=76)	48%	26%	26%
1971-72	Presidents Institutes (N=77)	55%	22%	23%

The fact that most academic administrators have traditionally been, and probably will continue to be, chosen from the faculty (and to a large extent by the faculty) is due to the belief that these top officials should have the "proper" scholarly credentials--the doctorate in an acceptable academic discipline, college teaching experience, and a record of scholarly research and/or publication. The rationale for this is understandable--so that they will be able to better know and appreciate the "academic mind." However, to require this mainly so that they will be acceptable to their academic constituency, which is certainly a pragmatic consideration today, is perhaps a more difficult reason to justify. While, to expect that a dean or a president should be a distinguished scholar for the sake of the prestige it will bring, which is still a lingering feeling in the academic soul, is, as Barzun has pointed out, simply "not sensible" in this day.[1] Of course, this is not to say that faculty members do not make good administrators; many obviously have. But those who do not have some administrative experience and/or formal training in the interim are bound to find the new deanship or presidency experience considerably more difficult, if not precarious.

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[1] Beverly W. Kunkel, "The College President as He Is Today," AAUP Bulletin (Vol. 34, Summer 1948), pp. 344-349.

Most newly-appointed major financial administrators, on the other hand, have received training more germane to their area of primary concern--financial management. Many of them have come from the ranks of accountants, comptrollers, and assistant business officers; a good number have entered the institution directly from the more lucrative outside business world. Few of these chief fiscal officers, however, have academic experience, per se, and hardly any have had an overall exposure to the educational enterprise or to the ways that their new responsibilities relate to the academic objectives and functions of the academy. As a member of the top administrative team, the new business officer often finds himself confronted with productivity he cannot measure, costs that usually defy control, and academic minds that seem to him at times to defy logic!

While an increasing number of recently-appointed top-level administrators do assume their new positions of major responsibility with the experience of having held other, lower administrative posts, it is nonetheless true that even for them, to quote a recent Institute participant, "it is a whole new ball game." They end up learning their new jobs that require administrative expertise the "hard" way...on the actual firing line. Few who do not at least have the potential for administrative ability survive very long these days, but even the most promising and many of the already competent readily admit that even they frequently "face bewilderment" and "need all the help (they) can get."[1]

---

[1] Jacques Barzun, The American University (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1968), pp. 113-115.

At the same time many observers, students, and critics of the academic scene have bemoaned the inadequate preparation of college administrators during recent years, with an increasing number suggesting that there are, or should be, better means to prepare them in advance or in the very early periods of their administration for their many and varied concerns and responsibilities. Some have expressed the idea that educational administration today has reached the point of "functional specialization" where there exists a body of fundamental insights into sound administrative principles and practices. Marsh was among the first to suggest this back in 1945 when he referred to college administration as both "a science and an art." He proclaimed that the college president should "be an authority on something, and there is nother better for him to be an authority on that college administration."[2]

A few years later Davidson observed that "college administration is only now emerging as a distinct profession."[3] And in 1955, Bauer proposed the systematic study of higher educational administration in his book of case studies in college administration.[4] Coincidentally, this was the same year that the Institute for College and University Administrators was founded at Harvard's Graduate School of Business Administration as an experiment with short courses for academic administrators using mainly the case study method. The plea for better prepared administrators intensified during the following decade as the popularity of the Institute idea began to demonstrate an acknowledged need for help on the part of new presidents and academic deans. In 1964 Bolman suggested the additional need for high caliber university centers for higher education where interdisciplinary graduate work, intensive research, and inservice institutes would be available.[1]

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[1] This has been frequently expressed by applicants for the Institute for College and University Administrators in recent years. It is strikingly in contrast to Gould's findings of about ten years ago. See John Wesley Gould, The Academic Deanship (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1964).

[2] Daniel L. Marsh, "College Administration--A Science and An Art," Association of American Colleges Bulletin (Vol. 31, March, 1945), p. 99.

[3] Carter Davidson, "Is College Administration a Profession?" Association of American Colleges Bulletin, (Vol. 35, March, 1949), p. 106.

[4] Ronald C. Bauer, Cases in College Administration (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1955), 213 pp.

The following year, in 1965, the Institute for College and University Administrators affiliated with the American Council on Education in Washington, D. C. Reflecting upon his observations after his three years as director of the Institute, Knapp reiterated the admonition others had been expressing during his address to the 1968 Presidents Institute. He stated that "The spirit of amateurism permeates the academic institution from top to bottom....The time is past when presidents could afford to learn their jobs by trial-and-error on the job at their own and others' leisure. So too is the time when they could afford the luxury of ill-prepared administrative staff."[2]

This continuing concern about the inadequate preparation of administrators has been echoed by many others recently, while the increased need for better training continues to be evidenced by the volume of applications received by the Institute to attend its various inservice programs--normally at least twice the number that can be accommodated. And higher education predictions would not seem to augur any abatement in terms of the number of new administrators that will be assuming their increasingly complex assignments in the years just ahead.

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[1] Frederick deW. Bolman, "Can We Prepare Better College and University Administrators?" Current Issues in Higher Education (Washington, D. C.: Association for Higher Education, 1964), pp. 230-33.

[2] David C. Knapp, "Management: Unwelcome Intruder in the Academic Dust," Educational Record (American Council on Education, Winter 1959, Vol. 50, No. 1), pp. 55, 59.

Today there are appoximately 2650 institutions of higher learning in the United States with a total enrollment of almost nine million students.[1] Within the past year or two the number of baccalaureate-granting institutions has remained essentially static (with the establishment of several new state colleges and universities offsetting the demise of the few small private institutions that were victims of the financial crisis) while the number of two-year community colleges has continued to increase. During the remainder of the decade, existing and newly established state institutions and community colleges will continue to absorb the substantial proportion (probably over 95 per cent) of the increasing enrollments, which are expected to reach over thirteen million by 1980,[1] while most of the private institutions will likely continue in operation with essentially a stable number of students.

In light of this anticipated overall growth in higher education, and considering the fact that practically every college and university has at least the three central administrative officers mentioned earlier, while the average institution is likely to have more than twice this number of top-level administrators (including, for example, deans of students, admissions directors, registrars, alumni and development directors, etc.), by 1980 we will probably need close to 20,000 major college officials to staff our citadels of higher learning in the U. S. And staff turnover is no minor concern. With just the existing institutions today, every year one out of six appoints a new president, which means that currently there are about 450 college and university presidents appointed annually in the United States.[1]

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[1] These are estimates obtained from USOE's National Center for Educational Statistics in September, 1972. (About 80 per cent of U. S. institutions are accredited; most of the others are recognized candidates or correspondents for accreditation.)

It is evident, then, that there is not only a continuing need, but an expanding need, for well-qualified administrators in American higher education. If present trends in career patterns persist, then most academic officials will continue to come to their posts with limited if any administrative experience or formal training for the increasingly demanding tasks they will be assuming. While academic credentials are desirable, they seldom in themselves bring administrative expertise. And while on-the-job experience is the best teacher in the long run, in the short run trial-and-error learning can be very expensive and inefficient for both the institution and the new administrator who has major responsibilities, endless decisions to make, and never enough time.

Short of actual first-hand experience in learning one's job, perhaps there are successful approaches to helping prepare competent administrators in higher education. Perhaps it is possible to telescope the relevant learning experiences, develop conceptual skills, impart some sound administrative principles, policies and procedures, and relate administrative theory to successful practice. Perhaps there are certain techniques to the decision-making process which would help to sharpen judgments, reduce the necessity of trial-and-error learning, accelerate job effectiveness, and enhance the confidence of the new, first-line administrator.

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[1] This is based on a comparison of the presidents listed in the 1970, 1971 and 1972 directories of U. S. institutions. It suggests that the average presidential term is currently six years, down somewhat from a decade ago, but perhaps on the rise again following the unusually high presidential attrition experienced during the campus disturbances in the late 1960's.

Realizing the need to develop and test such administrative skills for university leadership, the author of Parkinson's Law was poignantly critical of the present multifarious and inefficient system in a recent article in which he proposed the establishment of a national "Academic Staff College" to identify and train principal administrative officers. Such a college would build upon the experience of industry and the military and would have four general purposes: "research, training, selection and consultation." It would pool the best minds, ideas and experiences and its seminars "would follow the case history method."[1] While the idea excites the imagination, the implementation of such an omnibus proposal could well present staggering problems of sponsorship, control, support, curriculum design, and staffing. Nonetheless, the concept is valid and the reality of it is not entirely inconceivable.

Until the day of the Academic Staff College, however, we must live with and perhaps improve upon the several formal approaches currently being employed to help prepare college and university administrators. For the most part, these include graduate study programs, internship programs, and inservice workshops, seminars, and institutes. In the remaining sections of this chapter each of these methods will be briefly explored.

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[1] C. Northcote Parkinson, "On the Making of a College President," Think (International Business Machines Corporation, September-October, 1970), pp. 2-4.

Graduate Study Programs

According to W. H. Cowley, who, in 1945, had the distinction of being the first "professor of higher education" in the United States, the first actual class taught in higher education was back in 1893.[1] Ewing points out that the earliest courses in higher education were offered by the University of Chicago, Ohio State University, and Teachers College, Columbia University, probably about 1920. By the end of World War II some twenty-seven institutions were offering study in higher education, and by 1963 the number had grown to ninety-one.[2] At the present time there appear to be at least 112 U. S. colleges and universities offering graduate courses in higher education, as listed in Appendix A. Of this number, about half are known to provide doctoral level work for the Ed.D. or the Ph.D. in higher education.[3]

Further evidence of higher education as an expanding academic field of professional study is reflected by the recent establishment of the Association of Professors of Higher Education as a division of the American Association for Higher Education. Founded in October of 1971, APHE held its first meeting this past March. This new association is in the process of compiling a roster of all professors of higher education in the country, estimated to be about four times its present membership of

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[1] W. H. Cowley, "Don of Higher Educationists: In Search of a Discipline," College and University Business (McGraw Hill Publications, June 1969), pp. 61-64.

[2] John C. Ewing, The Development and Current Status of Higher Education as a Field of Graduate Study and Research in American Universities (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Florida State University, 1963), pp. 29-33.

[3] James F. Rogers, Higher Education as a Field of Study at the Doctoral Level (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Higher Education, 1969), p. 1.

170, as part of its membership drive and in preparation for its March, 1973, meeting.[1]

The growing volume of literature--studies, reports, interpretations, essays--on virtually every aspect of higher education is yet another indication of this rapidly developing field of study. There are several thousands of books alone which deal in some way with college administration. Add to them the countless journal and newspaper articles and it is no wonder that newly-appointed administrators are overwhelmed in their attempt to catch up, not to mention keep up, with the world of higher education. While the value of some of this literature is questionable, there have been a few useful annotated bibliographies in recent years which are helpful in sorting out the "information overload" for administrators, professors and students alike.[2]

Typically the graduate courses in higher education are offered by schools or divisions of education and increasingly within departments, centers, or institutes identified by "higher education." The fairly standard curriculum in "college administration" includes courses in such areas as...organization of institutions, purposes and policies, governance, leadership, management, finance, business administration, information systems, personnel policies, legal concerns, program planning, curriculum development, instruction, student personnel, counseling, psychology, sociology, philosophy, economics, history, research methods, adult education, and international education. The student normally concentrates his attention in an "area of specialization" relevant to his specific vocational interest, for example, student personnel work (which has been the most popular, according to Rogers[1]), while his program is balanced with courses from other areas and disciplines. Instruction is mostly lecture and seminar with the occasional use of simulation techniques and, in several programs, field work and internship experiences.

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[1] From recent correspondence with Professor W. Hugh Stickler at Florida State University, current president of APHE. Professor James L. Miller of the University of Michigan is to assume the presidency of APHE in 1973.

[2] For example: Walter Eells and Ernest Hollis, Administration of Higher Education: An Annotated Bibliography (U.S.O.E., 1960); Richard Meeth, Selected Issues in Higher Education: An Annotated Bibliography (Teachers College, 1965); Paul Dressel and Sally Pratt, The World of Higher Education (Jossey-Bass, 1971); and Lewis Mayhew, The Literature of Higher Education (American Association for Higher Education, annually since 1967, published by Jossey-Bass since 1971).

Despite the growth of graduate programs in the study of higher education, the idea of the professional preparation of college and university academic administrators in graduate schools still remains somewhat suspect in the minds of many faculty members, primarily for the reasons cited earlier in this chapter. While this predisposition is gradually mellowing, particularly in the community junior college sector,[2] it will still be some time before the universities and major liberal arts colleges look to the graduate schools of education for their new presidents and academic deans. Nonetheless, the graduate centers are making progress in their efforts to achieve a disciplinary and even an interdisciplinary identity as they strive to make their courses more significant, their programs more flexible, their requirements more stringent, and their graduates properly recognized as potential academic leaders in the world of American higher education.

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[1] Rogers, op. cit., p. 1.

[2] A motivating factor here was undoubtedly the establishment of the Junior College Leadership Program by the American Association of Junior Colleges with a grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation in 1960. During the past decade this program provided fellowships for the graduate training of junior college administrators at ten major U. S. universities that offered programs in higher education.

A fairly new development at a few universities is the "joint degree program" in which a student may enroll concurrently in two schools or colleges of the institution and work toward two advanced degrees at the same time. An excellent example of this may be found at Columbia University where the Graduate School of Business and Teachers College offer such a cooperative program in the area of higher education finance and business administration leading simultaneously to the M.B.A. and Ed.D. degrees.

In addition to graduate programs in college administration, it should be noted that there are also a few university-centered, "specially planned," postdoctoral programs for those who are able to spend a semester or two away from their jobs. The best known of these are at the University of Michigan (funded by the Carnegie Corporation and the Kellogg Foundation) and the Claremont Graduate School (funded through U.S.O.E. by the Education Professions Development Act). These programs, although serving a valuable function, are becoming increasingly costly in their efforts to continue to attract well-qualified people. The future of such postdoctoral offerings is tenuous, for, as Florida State University recently discovered in an attempt to establish such a program, outside funding of such magnitude is virtually impossible to find.

Internship Programs

Internship programs in college and university administration are highly functional, very effective methods of preparing new administrators, for they bring the intern into direct contact with reality where he is free to learn unencumbered by the constraints and responsibilities of a specific job commitment. They represent what is perhaps an ideal balance between experience and study--the juncture where, according to educational philosophers, the most effective learning takes place. Such programs are costly and time-consuming, however, and for these reasons the opportunities unfortunately are few and highly selective.

Increasingly, graduate schools of education are incorporating internships at their own or nearby institutions into their programs in college administration. This is particularly true in student personnel work and in the community junior college area. A few individual institutions, college and university consortia, and statewide systems are experimenting with internship programs, but frequently these experiences involve actual job responsibilities rather than wide, preservice administrative exposure with learning as an end in itself. A slight departure from the normal internship approach is the inservice inter-office exchange idea in which promising lower-level administrators--for example, assistants in the dean's and business offices--switch jobs for a period of time to learn about the "other" administrative operations and thus broaden their perspectives of the total academic enterprise.

Although government agencies at both the national and local levels sponsor numerous internship opportunities in areas of public affairs, urban and community development, education, and industry, most of the programs are designed to develop future talent for leadership posts within government itself, and many focus on increasing minority participation.[1] Even those dealing with education are concerned primarily with the elementary and secondary levels or else with Federal and state structures that make and/or implement education policy.

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[1] For a comprehensive survey report of these programs, see Frank Logue's Who Administers?--Access to Leadership Positions in the Administration of Government (New Haven, Conn.: The Ford Foundation, 1972), 110 pp.

On a nation-wide basis, the only on-campus internship offering in college and university administration is the American Council on Education's Academic Administration Internship Program (AAIP). This program was inspired by an earlier program sponsored and conducted by the Ellis L. Phillips Foundation between 1962 and 1965. The ACE internship program was established in 1965 with a major grant from the Ford Foundation "to strengthen leadership in American higher education by enlarging the number and improving the quality of persons available for key positions in academic administration." During the seven years since then, 273 individuals have completed this nine-month internship experience.[1]

Candidates for the AAIP are nominated by the presidents of their own institutions. All nominees are or have been faculty members, with some having already moved into minor administrative positions. Less than forty per cent of those nominated are normally selected for the annual class of thirty-five to forty "ACE Fellows." The basic AAIP program consists of two week-long seminars, one at the beginning and another at the end of the academic year; a campus internship experience from September to June with involvement at both policy and operational levels, either at their own or a "host" institution; regional meetings of the Fellows and their mentors, who are usually the institutional presidents or vice presidents; an analytical paper on some significant aspect of academic administration; and extensive reading.

For the first three years that the AAIP was offered, the program was fully financed, including the interns' salaries and moving expenses to host campuses. In 1968, however, with a sharp reduction in foundation support, it became necessary for the sponsoring institutions to assume responsibility for salaries and moving costs. As a result, about half of the annual participants have been spending their internship year at their home campuses, though with the understanding that they are relieved from their other routine duties for the period of the internship so that they will be free to become acquainted with all facets of their institutions' administrative operations. This "participant-observer role" of all of the interns requires a balance between involvement and detachment not unlike that of the effective administrator.[1]

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[1] Charles G. Dobbins and Thomas M. Stauffer, "Academic Administrators--Born or Made?" Educational Record (Vol. 53, No. 3, Fall 1972), forthcoming.

The ACE internship program has proven a very effective means of identifying and developing administrative talent for higher education over the past several years. One of its greatest assets is perhaps the opportunity it provides for the interns to get a real "feel" for academic administration so that they can knowledgeably decide whether they wish to pursue it as a vocation. While the program is costly, and must, in fact, find additional funding within the year, its success is readily demonstrated by the more than three-quarters of its "alumni" who have moved on to leadership positions in academic administration at institutions across the country, including some thirty college and university presidencies.[2]

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[1] Ibid., forthcoming.

[2] The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education has been conducting a similar type of internship program in teacher-training administration over the past eight years for participants from developing countries. Funded by the Agency for International Development, about eighteen interns from abroad annually spend up to one academic year as administrative interns at various colleges and universities that have major teacher education programs.

Inservice Seminars, Workshops and Institutes

As long as there are college and university administrators, there will be a need for short-term professional development programs--whether to help "orient" the newly-appointed, provide "refresher training" for the "old timers," or just update the over-worked "front-liner," regardless of his background and "seasoning." Reasons for this are many--the continuing financial pinch, social ferment, pressures for academic change, personnel turnover, new management concepts, and increasingly complex administrative responsibilities. The annual meetings or conferences of the national education associations, of course, are useful to many administrators, but they seldom provide the occasion for candid, meaningful dialogue as do many of the smaller, less formal seminar opportunities which are becoming increasingly available.

Indeed, one need only scan the "Coming Events" section of The Chronicle of Higher Education to be impressed with--if not at times confused by--the number of offerings today. The purpose of these short-term programs, which may run anywhere from a few hours to several weeks, is usually to provide a set of distinctive experiences to help the administrator better understand current concerns, issues, and developments that pertain to his own job and to higher education in general, and thus to help him become more effective in the performance of his duties. They typically include speeches, seminars, and other types of both structured and unstructured discussion sessions.

Many of these activities are sponsored by national and/or regional associations; some by state-wide systems, consortia, or individual institutions; and still others by consulting groups, commercial firms, and corporations. Certain of the programs focus on specific topics or themes, while many are broader in scope. Some limit their participation to their own membership or to certain categories of administrators, while others have a virtual "open door" policy. The costs, quite understandably, vary considerably among programs, with higher fees being charged for those offerings that are self-supporting or of commercial sponsorship. Typically, tuition fees for a "full-costed" program of less than a week and for fewer than fifty participants range between $75 and $125 per day.

In response to an expanding number of inquiries about professional development opportunities from presidents, deans, and other academic officers, in late 1970, I compiled a descriptive summary of "Major Short-Term National Training Programs for Academic Administrators" in American higher education. An updated version of this compendium is included as Appendix B. It is limited to those prominent programs open to participants from throughout the country (seventeen total), even though some are offered only to representatives from member institutions of the particular sponsoring association. It includes all national offerings specifically designed for presidents and academic deans, plus several additional programs open also to other administrators. The summary does not include regional offerings (such as those conducted by the Southern Regional Education Board) or national activities with a fairly narrow focus.

Realizing the need for a comprehensive summary of all short-term administrative training programs, the newly formed Management Division of the Academy for Educational Development, in June of 1971, began publishing A Guide to Professional Development Opportunities for College and University Administrators. The most recent edition of this volume includes over 100 seminars, workshops and institutes scheduled during 1972 that are either offered for or would be of interest to administrators of almost every walk, including academic, business, student services, research and planning, alumni and development, and other areas.[1] This summary, however, does not include any of the programs specially proposed for community junior college administrators, which is perhaps the reason that the Academy has distributed the volume only to the presidents of baccalaureate-granting institutions.

Another recent publication dealing in part with professional development programs for college and university administrators is Hefferlin and Phillips' Information Services for Academic Administrators. This handbook is a systematic, practical survey of the sources of information available on higher education today, and includes a chapter on institutes and workshops. The authors present a convincing case of the need for such inservice development and describe twenty existing programs in some detail.[2] They point out that "for the foreseeable future at least, the majority of academic administrators will not have graduate training in academic administration" and will therefore need "better in-service education than that (provided by) the annual association conventions." They city a recent survey by Feltner which found that seventy out of the seventy-two administrators replying believed that administrative training programs were of value; and, in their own study, they found that fourteen per cent of the respondents "called for more institutes and conferences."[3]

Hefferlin and Phillips refer to the Institute for College and

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[1] George Sullivan (ed.), A Guide to Professional Development Opportunities for College and University Administrators (New York: Academy for Educational Development, 1972), 170 pp.

[2] JB Lon Hefferlin and Ellis L. Phillips, Information Services for Academic Administrators (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, 1971), Chapter 5, pp. 43-69.

[3] Ibid., p. 45.

University Administrators (ICUA) of the American Council on Education as offering "the most extensive and elaborate series of meetings of any educational association."[1] This would certainly seem to be true, for the Institute conducts about a half-dozen five- and six-day programs each year, in addition to a few other shorter conferences. What makes the Institute's offerings unique is that the week-long programs are specifically designed for recently-appointed top-level administrators--presidents, major academic officers, and chief business officers--and are open to participants from any institution of higher learning in the country, with enrollment in each session limited to forty people. (The ICUA programs are described in greater detail in the next section.)

From Appendix B it can be seen that there are only two other associations that offer "orientation" seminars--the Association of American Colleges for about one-half day and the Council of Graduate Schools for five days each year. In both cases participation is restricted to those representing the respective organization's member institutions. Among the other programs for academic administrators, perhaps the most expansive are the management-oriented seminars offered by the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges for administrative teams from small, primarily private institutions. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and the American Association of State Colleges and Universities each have biennial week-long seminars for their member presidents, with AACTE's being open also to other administrators and faculty members.

Not included in Appendix B are the quite extensive series of regional seminars sponsored (or cosponsored with territorial associations) by the

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[1] Ibid., p. 52.

National Association of College and University Business Officers, the American Alumni Council, the American College Public Relations Association, the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, and the American Association for Higher Education. The programs offered by NACUBO, AAC, ACPRA, and AACJC are essentially workshops on the specific professional concerns of their clientele, while the AGB and AAHE programs deal to a greater extent with current overall issues in higher education, such as the recent Carnegie Commission reports.

Although still essentially a regional association, the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education has extended its Management Information Systems program into a nationwide operation within the past few years. With the cooperation of such national associations as the American Council on Education and the National Association of College and University Business Officers and with federal funding, the recently-formed National Center for Higher Education Management Systems (NCHEMS-WICHE) periodically conducts three-day seminars for administrators on the specifics of computer-assisted academic planning and management systems for colleges, universities, and consortia of higher educational institutions.

In 1969, fourteen years after the founding of the Institute for College and University Administrators at the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, and four years after ICUA moved to the American Council on Education, a small group of astute and enterprising professors at HBS decided once again to apply their Harvard case method to the training of college administrators. Appreciating the success of ICUA and realizing that, not only were its programs not meeting the total demand but were servicing only the top administrative echelon, these educators, with support from Sloan and other foundations, established the independent Institute for Educational Management. IEM began conducting intensive six-week summer programs, patterned after HBS's executive development program, primarily for "middle-management" administrators in higher education, with enrollments limited to sixty participants.

Aimed at developing a comprehensive administrative viewpoint, the IEM curriculum deals with "current management problems and applicable management techniques," including financial concerns, management information systems, and human organizational behavior. While concentrating on the use of the case method, approximately one-sixth of its programming consists of guest speakers. During 1972 IEM completed its third successful summer of operation, and plans to continue its program in 1973 under the newly arranged auspices of HBS's Office of Executive Education.[1]

While there are numerous administrative development opportunities provided by the higher education establishment, existing programs in recent years have not been able to meet the demand. Additional evidence of this has been the number of recently formed commercial seminars that have moved in to "fill the void." One of the first of these was Higher Education Executive Associates, which was established by Emmet in 1967 and two years later affiliated with College and University Business, a McGraw-Hill publication. This program offered frequent two-day workshops around the country, each on a "hot" specialized topic, and was open to all comers.

In early 1971 HEEA disaffiliated form McGraw-Hill and re-established itself as Academic Professional Development Associates, though there has been no evidence of any continued activity in the seminar area. Neoscope, Ltd., was also active in the seminar business for a while, and University Consultants of Cambridge, which utilizes administrative game simulation, is still in operation. Other consulting firms in industrial management and/or educational management, development, and fund raising have become increasingly active in recent years, although these high-priced commercial enterprises, as with some of the non-profit programs, have felt the belt-tightening of higher education's recent and continuing financial squeeze.

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[1] See IEM's A Management Development Program for College and University Administrators (Cambridge: The Institute for Educational Development, 1972), 32 pp.

One of the most prominent "outside" organizations to move toward the campus scene is the American Management Association. Two years ago AMA began its Management Course for College and University Presidents--a week-long program on management principles and techniques for from twenty to thirty participants. Whereas originally three programs were planned annually, available information indicates that only one session has been conducted to date. Systems Research Group is another enterprise offering short-term management seminars which are called "CAMPUS" (Comprehensive Analytical Methods for Planning in University Systems). The commercial counterpart of NCHEMS, these two-to-three-day seminars cover institutional planning, programming and budgeting using simulation models.

A significant boost to the on-campus training of higher education personnel was Part E of the 1967 Education Professions Development Act which amended Title V of the U. S. Higher Education Act of 1965. This legislation provided grants to institutions for short-term programs, institutes, and graduate fellowships for the professional development of educators. While only a small proportion of this support has gone toward the training of college administrators, it has nonetheless provided the incentive for some very useful programs which might not otherwise have been conceived nor financially feasible.[1] The U. S. Office of Education is currently evaluating the types of EPDA programs conducted to date and their implications for future higher education manpower and training needs.[2]

There are three major advantages to inservice seminars, workshops, and institutes: their brief duration, their growing availability, and the increasing choice of topics offered. A two-to-five-day program does not require the practicing administrator to be away from his campus and his job for an unreasonable period if his time is well spent. And increasingly, as more programs are scheduled--nationally, regionally, and even locally--covering an expanding number of topics, the college administrator is able to select those that most suit his interests, needs, budget, and individual schedule.

Of course, the purposes of the programs themselves should be the primary consideration in deciding on participation, and it is apparent that they vary quite widely. In turn, the purposes determine program design, content, methods, and group composition. On this last factor, Hefferlin and Phillips have observed that "most institutes for academic administrators are individually-oriented rather than team-oriented.... (emphasizing) homogeneous representation from heterogeneous institutions." What is needed "in addition," they point out, are "programs aimed at heterogeneous representation from homogeneous institutions."[1] This would seem to contradict Henderson who has suggested that, because of the brief time and limited purpose of short-term institutes, "it is important to cater to persons who have reasonably homogeneous aims and responsibilities."[2] In any case, there is encouraging evidence that more "team-oriented" seminars are being offered today than there were a few years ago.

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[1] U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Higher Education Personnel Training Programs, 1971-72 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1971), 30 pp.

[2] Hefferlin and others, Inventory of Current Research on Post Secondary Education, 1972, p. 8.

If there are indeed justifications for bringing together administrators of one type for an institute, as Henderson advocates, then perhaps one appropriate occasion would be for orientation programs for those who have been appointed recently to their posts, programs such as those conducted by the Institute for College and University Administrators.

The Institute for College and University Administrators

The Institute for College and University Administrators (ICUA) is a special operating program of the American Council on Education[3] which offers short-term professional development institutes for recently appointed college and university administrators. (See Appendix C.) These institutes deal with the responsibilities, problems, and opportunities of academic leadership and administrative decision making in American higher education.

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[1] Hefferlin and Phillips, Information Services for Academic Administrators, pp. 49, 50.

[2] Algo D. Henderson, Training University Administrators: A Programme Guide (Paris: UNESCO, 1970), p. 51.

[3] The American Council on Education, located in Washington, D. C., is the "umbrella" organization of U. S. higher education. It is a voluntary, nongovernmental agency, founded in 1918. Its membership today includes over 200 national and regional associations and organizations, almost 1,400 colleges and universities, and 70 affiliated institutions and organizations. ACE's purpose is to advance education and educational methods through comprehensive cooperative effort.

Established in 1955 as a private trust with support form the Carnegie Corporation of New York, the Institute was situated at the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration until 1965, when it affiliated with the American Council on Education. In the seventeen years since its founding, over 700 presidents, some 950 academic vice presidents and academic deans, and almost 200 chief financial officers, representing more than 1,000 different colleges and universities, have participated in the forty-six week-long programs that have been conducted for new administrators. In addition, over 1,000 other individuals have attended the Institute's department chairmen's workshops, trustees' seminars, and special ad hoc conferences.

The primary purpose of the ICUA is to assist recently-appointed administrators in acclimating to their new jobs--to help them broaden their perspectives and cultivate an appreciation of their new responsibilities so that they may better conceptualize the complex factors that enter into administrative decision making and the formulation of academic policy. The Institute provides them with the opportunity to discuss with leading educators, other prominent authorities, and their own colleagues some of the current substantive issues, problems, practices, theories, and research findings in American higher education, to test their individual judgments, and to share their group's wisdom.

The Institute each year conducts five or six of these week-long orientation programs, including the annual Presidents Institute (with a coordinate seminar program for spouses), three or four sessions of the Institute for Academic Deans, and a session of the Chief Business Officers Institute. Attendance at each program is restricted to forty people for maximum group interaction during the limited time together. Participants are selected from among applicants to represent a cross-section of U. S. colleges and universities. The various sessions are held at different sites around the country to help "equalize" the opportunity, with participants coming from about two dozen states for the average institute.

Each of these institutes for newly-appointed administrators offers a balance of lectures, seminars, case study discussions, practical demonstrations, and small-group discussions. (Appendix D contains a typical program for academic deans.) An advance survey of participants helps in tailoring each program to the particular needs and concerns of those who will be attending. Specific sessions focus on the planning, organization, staffing, budgeting, implementing, and evaluation of academic programs in the dynamic institutional environment.

Discussions during the institute are concerned with both formal and informal organizational structures and processes. They typically include such subjects as educational philosophies, styles of leadership, campus disorders, student and faculty concerns, participation in institutional governance, faculty recruitment and development, curriculum innovation, personnel policies, collective bargaining, faculty retention decisions, trusteeship, accountability, legal concerns, institutional financing, information systems, management concepts, interinstitutional cooperation, and public relations. The best available speakers, seminar leaders, and other resource personnel, most of whom are experienced administrators, are engaged on an ad hoc basis for each program.

An informal atmosphere is maintained throughout the institute week and all discussion is strictly "off-the-record" to promote a free and candid exchange of information and viewpoints. To facilitate participants getting to know each other, a photograph brochure is distributed at the beginning of the institute and name badges are worn during the week. For most of the sessions, and always for the case study discussions, participants are seated around the outside of a horseshoe-shaped table arrangement so that everyone may readily see everyone else; each is provided with a name "tent."

Outside of the class sessions, participants mix informally with each other and the staff during coffee breaks, group meals, social hours, by the pool side, or around the hearth, and often carry on discussion late into the night. By the conclusion of the institute week the participants have become a closely-knit group of individuals who maintain their associations and share ideas and counsel for years to come. They have, in effect, become a fraternity of peers, each of whom appreciates that he is no longer alone as he meets the daily rigors of his new administrative responsibilities...a little more informed, sagacious, and self-confident.

In recognition of the increasing importance of the "team" approach to academic administration, and particularly of the strategic relationship between the academic and financial areas, in the spring of 1972 the ICUA for the first time conducted concurrent sessions of the Institute for Academic Deans and the Chief Business Officers Institute. These coordinate programs provided the opportunity for some very meaningful dialogue during both joint sessions and small group discussions. The experiment was so successful that concurrent sessions of these two institutes are planned again in 1973.

In addition to the week-long institutes for new presidents, deans and business officers, the ICUA occasionally conducts other two-to-three-day conferences on topics of current concern to educational leaders. Within the past few years these offerings have included workshops for department and division chairmen (in cooperation with regional consortia), seminars for presidents and board chairmen, and national conferences on "confronting the financial crisis in higher education" for institutional teams of presidents, trustees, deans, and financial officers (in cooperation with three other national associations). And in the fall of 1971, at the request of former participants in the Presidents Institute, ICUA began conducting the annual Presidents "Alumni" Seminar--a one-day "refresher" program following the annual meeting of the American Council on Education.

The Institute for College and University Administrators is financially self-supporting and therefore must rely upon program-fee revenue for its operating budget, which is currently about $100,000 per year (exclusive of participant fellowship aid). In the earlier days the Institute was supported in part by subvention from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, and later the Danforth, General Electric, Hazen, and Sears-Roebuck foundations, which enabled it to maintain lower tuition levels. Since 1971 the institutes have been "full-costed" at approximately $100 per day and funding has been received from the Andrew W. Mellon and Esso Education foundations and the Carnegie Corporation of New York to provide fellowship assistance for administrators who could not otherwise afford to attend. Currently about half of the Institute's participants are awarded fellowship grants ranging from $150 to $600 each.

The Institute staff is comprised of a full-time program director, a full-time administrative assistant/secretary, a part-time director, and a part-time secretary. In addition, from twelve to twenty speakers and resource people join the staff for each individual institute. An Advisory Committee of a dozen leading administrators, most of them Institute "alumni," meets twice a year to advise the directors on general policy, financial matters, long-range goals, and the planning of annual programs.

Upon the conclusion of each institute week, participants complete a program evaluation form on which they are asked to rate the various characteristics of the institute and make recommendations for future programs. (See Appendix I.) Virtually all of those who have attended in recent years have praised the program, indicating how very much they benefitted from it. Many people equated the week with "several years of experience on the actual firing line." (Other recent comments are included in Appendix C.) A summary of the ratings from the 1971-72 participants is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2

SUMMARY OF 1971-72 INSTITUTE RATINGS*

Overall Rating of The Institute (Summary of Characteristic Ratings)	Outstanding	42%
	Good to Excellent	50
	Average	8
	Poor	0
Helpfulness of the Institute	Exceptionally	11%
	Considerably	73
	Somewhat	14
	Have No Idea	2
	Not Particularly	0
Fruitfulness of the Case Study Method	Very Fruitful	48%
	Fairly Fruitful	40
	Not Very Fruitful	12

*N=114 (79% Response)

Beyond the immediate benefits to the individuals and their institutions, the Institute for College and University Administrators has had a "multiplier effect" by serving as a stimulus and model for both inhouse and consortium, state-wide and regional professional development workshops for administrators throughout the country. Former participants have been instrumental in planning many of these programs, which they have patterned after the Institute's format, calling upon the ICUA for advice and permission to use its case studies, and engaging speakers and case discussion leaders who have been on the Institute's programs.[1]

In 1966 Business Week termed the Institute "the most eye-catching step in the move toward educating the educators in management,"[2] and in 1968 Schultz referred to the Institute as "certainly the most prestigious inservice program for senior college and university administrators....An exceptionally noteworthy aspect has been the extensive use of the case study method."[3] Today, the case method continues to be one of the most distinctive features of the ICUA's programs, and from Table 2 it is evident that the vast majority of recent participants in the Institute have found the method fruitful. In the next chapter this "case study method" of teaching administration will be briefly explored.

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[1] To further encourage this local approach to professional development, I have prepared a set of guidelines for planning and conducting inservice administrative seminars; these guidelines are contained in Appendix J.

[2] "Teaching the Big Men on Campus," Business Week, (July 9, 1966).

[3] Raymond E. Schultz, "The Preparation of College and University Administrators," Phi Delta Kappan (March, 1968), p. 391.

CHAPTER III

THE CASE METHOD OF TEACHING COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

Background and Philosophy

The "case method" of instruction, quite simply, is the use of "cases" to effect problem-centered learning. A "case" is a written record of a situation, condition, and/or experience. Bauer has defined several basic "types" of cases: the case problem, which briefly presents the facts and the problem itself; the case report, which provides the basic elements with little supporting information and gives the decision(s) and results; the case study (or history), which is a longer, more complete account, not necessarily with a readily identifiable problem, but containing the results and sometimes the implications and analysis of actions; and the research case, which is the most comprehensive, including more on observable events, factors, and a complete diagnosis.[1]

The earliest known use of cases was in the diagnostic training of social workers shortly after the Civil War. Later in the nineteenth century the method was used by the Harvard Law School to present judicial decisions in a "revolt" against the "less functional" lecture method of legal education. In the early twentieth century cases were employed by visiting teachers as an aid to pupil guidance. It was in the early 1920's when the first intensive effort was made to apply the case method to any field of administration, with the initiative, not surprisingly, taken by the Harvard Business School. By 1940 the field of public administration began adopting this approach, but it was not really until the 1950's that the case method was applied to the preparation of school administrators.[1]

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[1] Bauer, op. cit., 213 pp.

The case study approach to teaching administration has frequently been referred to as "The Harvard Case Method" of teaching "human relations."[2] As Bauer was making his "case" for this more functional method of preparing college-level administrators during 1953-55, the Harvard Business School, in cooperation with the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, developed a series of case-discussion seminars for student personnel administrators. This experiment was apparently the first broad application of the case method to teaching college administration, and the success of the experience was a factor in the decision to establish the Institute for College and University Administrators in 1955. Several of the cases developed for the NASPA seminars were used in the early ICUA programs for presidents, and these cases, along with others designed more specifically for presidents and academic deans, formed the nucleus of the first cases in college administration made available through HBS's Intercollegiate Case Clearing House.[3]

Not all categories of cases fall discretely into Bauer's "type" classifications, since the design is often determined by the intended use of the case. While legal cases are fairly specific, administrative and therapeutic (welfare) cases vary more in their purpose and style. Cases in "business," "public," or "educational" administration may fall into any one of the descriptive types. The cases in higher educational administration used by the ICUA are essentially case "studies." The case used for the experiment described later in this dissertation (see Chapter IV and Appendix F) is a "case study" by definition, one in which a major, exigent "problem" is not readily identifiable (not unlike the administrative process), but in which administrative decision making is very much in evidence and major educational issues are at stake.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 28-36.

[2] For example, see Kenneth R. Andrews' (ed.) The Case Method of Teaching Human Relations and Administration (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1956), 271 pp.

[3] See Intercollegiate Bibliography: Cases in Administration of Higher Education (Boston: Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, 1966), 32 pp.

It will be recalled from Chapter I that the administrative case study may be defined as the factual account of an authentic campus event, situation, and/or problem that requires administrative decision making. It describes real concrete situations at real institutions that require or suggest the need for discretionary action. The case study "method," then, is the process of utilizing this written case to effect learning by involving the participant in at least three inter-dependent stages of activity: reading and contemplating the case by himself; analyzing and discussing the case with others in a group session or sessions; and subsequent reflection upon the case, the discussion, his own attitudes, and his own administrative behavior.

Each participant comes to the case method with a certain unique set of experiences, skills and attitudes. The purpose of the case method is to enhance these experiences, help him improve his skills, and provide him with the opportunity to examine his attitudes. While reading a case study, usually the evening before it is scheduled for discussion, the individual vicariously gains a new, different, and relevant administrative experience while he formulates his tentative analysis of the case situation or problem. During the group analysis and discussion of the case the next day, then, each person contributes his own thoughts and reacts to those of others.

It is during this group discussion that the most significant aspect of the case method comes into effect. With an authentic case study as a "common experience," a group of colleagues as interested and vicariously involved "partners," and a case leader as discussion moderator, the ultimate in meaningful dialogue can be accomplished. The participants can share and explore ideas, test their individual judgments, and "role-play" realistic problem solving exercises detached from the threat of actual consequences. Each contributes to and learns from the group's wisdom, benefits from group feedback, and gains greater insights into his own and others' feelings. All sides of a question, issue, or problem can be quite thoroughly explored in an objective manner approximating the ideal in real-world decision making while remaining once removed from real-world involvement.

The overall purpose of the case method, then, and indeed of the Institute in general, is to help participants develop administrative concepts, practical judgments, and leadership styles. Through active involvement in the case method, both cognitive and affective learning of these administrative skills takes place. Participants gain a better comprehension of the administrative process--of human roles and relationships and of how to apply theories and principles to concrete action and practices. They become more aware of academic concerns and of some of the analytical tools for administrative decision making. They sharpen their discernment and their ability to anticipate and analyze problems, to consider the feasibility and implications of alternative courses of action, and to avoid making premature decisions or overcautious judgments.

The case method, of course, does not provide "answers" to administrative problems, nor does it indicate what is necessarily "right" or "wrong." What it does do is provoke the critical-thinking processes, helping individuals realize that there are no "pat" solutions and that each administrative problem is unique unto itself, requiring discretionary decision making appropriate to the specific set of circumstances. Nonetheless, through the method's "reality testing," and particularly the simulated exploration of alternative decisions, the participants acquire new concepts, useful generalizations, guiding principles, and valuable insights into the administrative process. In the course of this, some preconceived notions may be modified, while other attitudes may be reinforced, both of which are important learning outcomes. But the most important outcome of the case method is perhaps the fact that it helps participants learn how "to learn"...a quality indispensable to sound, responsible administrative practice.

What this suggests, then, is that the case method provides a functional relationship between administrative theory and process...between principles and practice...between the printed or spoken word and the actual process of administering. While the more common lecture-discussion and paper-discussion methods are fine for the teaching of theory, they do not relate as meaningfully to real-life problem-solving situations as does the case approach to learning, which is less confining and offers a greater potential for identification and exploration. Internships and practicums, while providing more direct contact with reality, are lengthy in commitment and limited in opportunity. The case approach, as Bauer has suggested, is "the closest thing to apprenticeship that exists."[1] It offers a happy compromise between precious time and extensive experience while bridging the gap between the classroom and the real world. It provides a concentrated, yet adaptable, learning opportunity in which the learners can vicariously experience several years of real-world administrative processes.

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[1] Bauer, op. cit., p. 40.

Case Design and Development

Administrative case studies may cover an unlimited range of topics dealing with the college and university organization. They may focus on a single aspect or on many aspects of the institutional operation. Usually a case will involve one or more major administrative officers in a significant problem-solving situation of fairly common application to institutions of higher learning. It will present facts in such a way that the case is open for thought, objective discussion, and the evaluation of action. It will describe the setting, the issues and circumstances, the people involved, the events, and any other information pertinent to an analysis of the situation.

A case study may be concerned with internal relations among or within institutional departments, divisions or groups, or between individuals; it may focus on external relations with the institution's various constituencies; or it may deal with a combination of any of these. It is the task of the seminar program director to select those cases most appropriate for a given group of conference participants based upon their most pressing concerns and the most current issues relevant to their administrative responsibilities. A list of major current case study topics, some presently used by the Institute for College and University Administrators, is contained in Table 3.

TABLE 3

CASE STUDY TOPICS IN COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

- Student involvement in institutional decision making.
- The new youth culture and changing life styles.
- Social alienation of the college student today.
- Emergence of political action groups on campus.
- Student discipline and due process.
- Faculty involvement in institutional decision making.
- Faculty non-retention and tenure.
- Collective bargaining on the campus.
- Improving or correcting weak departmental leadership.
- What to do about tenured "deadwood."
- How to handle a neurotic professor.
- "Old guard" vs. new liberals on the faculty.
- The new curriculum and non-traditional study.
- Departmental and curricular reorganization.
- Terminating departments and/or programs.
- Implementing new programs and calendars.
- Institutional involvement in correcting social injustices.
- Determining institutional budget priorities.
- Ways of meeting the financial crisis.
- Cooperative programs, courses and services.
- Development and fund raising.
- New management theories and techniques.
- Implementing a management information system.
- Emerging legal concerns in higher education.
- Affirmative action requirements and programs.
- Statewide coordination of higher education.
- Institutional autonomy vs. accountability.
- Governing board relationships.
- Top-level administrative reorganization.
- Selection of a new chairman/dean/president.
- Inservice professional development programs.
- Styles of academic leadership.
- Balancing the administrative workload.

No case study has a neat beginning or a neat ending, for each represents but a small "chunk of reality" out of the total dynamic process of human and organizational behavior. For this reason, it is never possible for a case study to provide _all_ of the facts. But this perhaps is not that much unlike reality--for when actual administrative decision making is called for, the decision maker seldom has, or is able to gather, _all_ of the information he would like to have before the decision should be made. (Nor do those who make decisions usually utilize all of the pertinent information they actually have available!)

Typically, the beginning of the case study presents a brief overview of the problem or situation, thus "involving" the reader. The institutional setting and other descriptive information follows. The facts are normally presented, either chronologically or else in a manner relating to salient aspects of the problem, so as to lead up to major decisions that must be made or to significant administrative circumstances that require analysis and discretionary evaluation. The "ends" therefore often are left "untied," with the outcome not known, the actions unjudged, and the motives not presumed. The participants thereby are required to make their own analysis and judgments, assessing for themselves the consequences or implications of various decisions or actions.

Case studies are written in a completely objective style, using words which in no way reveal or imply the writer's own feelings. Personalities, antagonisms, pressures, and constraints, which are important for realism, are presented by relating incidents or including quotations that suggest the characteristic behavior and patterns of relationships of the major individuals involved. The case writer himself never passes judgment or even hints of personal bias, for this would defeat the intended effects of the case study method.

The most effective length for a case study normally is between 1,500 and 4,000 words, depending on what is necessary to present in concise form a fairly complete picture of the actual situation. It should be sufficiently comprehensive to cover all of the relevant facts, but not so complex that it may be confusing or tedious. Topical headings at appropriate points in the text are helpful to the reader. Occasionally supporting documents that may be useful for reference are appended as "attachments." With some cases, when the final action or outcome is revealed to the reader, this is often accomplished with a brief case supplement which is distributed toward the end of the session after the case has been thoroughly discussed, but with sufficient remaining time for group reaction.

A variation to the single case study is the "sequential" case in which parts of an unfolding set of events are presented in episodes, each analyzed and discussed in turn, and each building upon the earlier "chapters" of the case. In effect, this is a series of "mini" cases that usually deal with interrelated administrative problems contributing and leading to a larger institutional problem. The sequential case is not unlike the longer, more typical case study except that a given set of facts is analyzed before additional facts are introduced.

While the sequential case may offer a particularly effective variation in the case-method approach to learning administrative problem solving, it nevertheless has the disadvantage of requiring more in-class time since each subsequent episode is normally read by the participants during the session rather than in advance. This necessitates longer sessions or else more sessions on the same case, which, within the always-present limitations of time, might deprive the participants of the opportunity to explore other case studies dealing with problem situations perhaps just as important to them. There are, of course, circumstances when greater in-depth analysis may be preferred to diversity of exposure.

Anonymity is usually an important factor in case studies, and precautions are taken to protect the identity of institutions and individuals. In most cases the names of places, people, buildings, departments and other identifiable characteristics are disguised to the extent possible without altering the basic qualities or essential facts of the case. This has the additional advantage of precluding participant biases, discouraging the introduction of additional "facts" from those who might happen to have known the institution or the situation, and giving all participants an opportunity to discuss the case on equal "footing."

Case studies may be researched and written by virtually anyone who has some knowledge of the academic scene, an appreciation of human behavior and the administrative process, and some writing ability. Usually the case researcher or team of researchers will spend several days on campus gathering and carefully recording pertinent facts from both primary and secondary sources. Information may be compiled from available reports, documents, letters, articles, or personal interviews. Sometimes the sensitivity and/or recency of the campus situation under study may hamper the investigation, so timing must be carefully planned and the cooperation of the institution secured in advance. Frequently, the case studies of the Institute for College and University Administrators are developed by those who have previously attended one of the Institute's programs; they are edited by the Institute staff and then used as appropriate in various ICUA programs.[1]

The number of case studies dealing with college and university administration is still quite limited. Currently, the only general source of such cases is the Intercollegiate Case Clearing House at the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration. Many of the cases listed in their Intercollegiate Bibliography were developed by the Institute for College and University Administrators during the late 1950's and early 1960's. Their few more recent ones have been prepared by the Institute for Educational Management for IEM's summer programs. Written since 1969, they deal primarily with financial concerns, labor relations, and managerial control and information systems. To my knowledge there have been only three major publications that have included a collection of cases broadly covering college level administration: Bauer's 1955 Cases in College Administration, Hodgkinson's 1963 Educational Decisions: A Casebook, and Dilley's 1970 Higher Education: Participants Confronted.

Case studies of the Institute for College and University Administrators, of course, have been provided for each of the Institute's participants over the years, and several of them have subsequently used these materials in conjunction with institution-sponsored, inservice workshops and seminars for their own administrators and department chairmen. ICUA has been able to add about three or four new case studies per year to its repertoire, but with the constantly changing higher education scene today most cases become rapidly outdated, and there is a continuous need for the development of new, current, and relevant case material.[2]

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[1] The Institute's current honorarium for a usable case study ranges between $300 and $700, depending upon length, quality, and applicability.

[2] As an aid to potential case writers, I have developed some case writing guidelines, based mainly upon the discussion in this chapter, which are contained in Appendix K.

Teaching by the Case Study Method

The case method of teaching might most appropriately be likened to the Socratic method of rational dialogue and questioning--or, in the modern academic world, to the St. John's College approach to learning.[1] The purpose of the case method is to elicit genuine dialogue--candid, searching, and purposeful discussion--from all participants. For this reason, it makes special demands upon the case discussion leader, who assumes the role of seminar moderator rather than the more common role of classroom lecturer.

The case leader is usually an experienced teacher and administrator (though he is not necessarily an expert in all areas of academic administration). He is also a student of group dynamics and an astute observer of human reaction, qualifications that assist him in his role of stimulating meaningful, participant-centered dialogue. His purpose actually is to serve as the "professional guide" to the group during its analysis and discussion of the case study, not as a "teacher" in the traditional sense, but more as the "facilitating" member of a learning resources team.

In accomplishing such "student-centered" learning, it is essential that all participants be able to see, identify, and interact with one another. For these reasons, the group size, meeting room set-up, and session duration are major considerations. There should be a sufficient number of participants for maximum input and dialogue--perhaps at least fifteen--but not so many that discussion may be inhibited--probably forty at the most. Seminar-style or tiered conference-style seating, with large name tents for each participant, is most conducive to optimum group dynamics. Case discussion sessions normally run from eighty to 120 minutes, depending upon the length and complexity of the case study. (See Appendix J.)

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[1] See Kenneth Eble's "Teaching--Genuine Discussion...May be a Way of Restoring Relevance to Teaching," (The Chronicle of Higher Education, October 26, 1971), p. 6.

An appropriate learning climate is another critical factor in the case method, and it is an important responsibility of the case leader to establish and maintain an open, informal, and relaxed atmosphere throughout the case discussion. If the group, or any member of it, is unfamiliar with the case method, the leader should begin by explaining its philosophy, purpose, and format so as to maximize the value that the participants may derive from the experience. He should point out the unusual opportunity it provides to test their own thinking by "experimenting in the world of possibilities."

He should also mention that a wide range of responses to a case study is normal, and that there are times when some participants will become more involved than others. (In fact, reactions sometimes vary to the point that one wonders if everyone has read the same case!) He should stress that there are no "proper" solutions to a case, and that therefore everyone should feel free to express his own thoughts and to speak out whenever he disagrees with anything that is said by others. Finally, he should emphasize that the participants are ultimately responsible for what they garner from the case study method--the more they involve themselves with it, the more they will benefit from it.

The objectives of the group analysis and discussion of a case study are to (a) identify and clearly define the major problem or problems and the sub-problems, (b) examine the facts and evaluate the available evidence, (c) weigh the possible courses of action and the feasibility of responsible alternative actions, (d) establish priorities, deciding what should be done, when, in what order, and by whom, and (e) determine the most effective means of implementing the desired action. The discussants also analyze the causal factors to determine how the problem(s) may have been avoided, and what might, or should, have been done differently.

There is no special point of departure for beginning a case discussion. Often the case leader will start by asking such simple questions as..."What is your general reaction to this case?"...or "Is there a problem here?" and "If so, what is it?" This in turn may lead to posing such questions as "How did this problem begin?"...or "Is there anything distinctive about the problem situation?"...or "What would you have done under the circumstances?" The diversity of replies often will suggest the need for the group to reexamine the data presented in the case, which in turn leads to a clarification of the facts and the issues.

The case study method, however, is typically a non-directive approach to teaching, with the case leader providing only the amount of direction necessary to keep the discussion from drifting off onto tangents. As moderator, he does not direct opinion, but rather attempts to give every participant the opportunity to speak, and, at times, may even call upon those who have not contributed by asking them a non-intimidating question. Of course, more "guidance" may be necessary with very inexperienced groups than with those who are already seasoned in administration. Indeed, with more experienced participants, the non-directive approach is particularly beneficial since they are more apt to know what they want to "get out" of a particular case study, and may thus concentrate their attention on those aspects and issues that are of special concern to them.

In the case method of learning it is the feedback that the participants receive from their peers that actually provides the effective direction to the group discussion. The subtle, and sometimes not so subtle, cues of agreement or disagreement from their own colleagues usually have much more meaningful impact on the learners than any overt attempt on the part of the case leader to direct the group's thinking toward predetermined ends. "Self-discovery" is the key, while the case and its leader are the facilitators.

During the discussion the case leader, too, is continuously receiving feedback from the learners as he monitors and assesses the group dialogue. This in turn may prompt him at appropriate times to provide subtle "feedback" himself in the form of thought-directed questions which he feels will promote group progress. Such questions may attempt to clarify opinions or points of agreement (or perhaps disagreement) that have been expressed and help relate them to the central concern of the discussion or to a major problem in the case study. Other questions may allude to factors that have been overlooked or may introduce controversial points to help stimulate the group dialogue.

Sometimes the case leader will enrich the discussion by sharing anecdotes from his own or others' experiences. Always, though, his main purpose is to evoke the participants' thoughts, insights, and theoretical concepts. To facilitate this, at times during and often at the completion of the session, he assists the group in summarizing their discussion and points of agreement, and in relating their generalizations to current administrative theory and principles, pointing out pertinent research studies and other applicable references that might be helpful.

Two "teaching" techniques quite often used with the case study method are "buzz" sessions and "role playing." Buzz sessions are actually small, break-down discussion groups, usually of from three to six people each, designed to provide the participants with the opportunity to discuss the case, or aspects of the case, on a more personal, informal basis. These sessions are particularly useful in getting some of the more diffident or reticent members of the group to identify with the case method and become more involved in the discussion. Buzz sessions are therefore quite helpful in increasing the self-confidence of those who are experiencing the case method for the first time. They may be scheduled at the very beginning of a case session or at a convenient point during the general group discussion.

In a sense, the case method is a form of "simulation," since it involves participants vicariously, yet dynamically, in real-life administrative circumstances. However, the ultimate in such involvement is attained only when "role playing" is incorporated into the learning process. This may be introduced with many case studies at various points during the discussion. By assigning participants specific "roles" to act out, they can better appreciate the dynamics and emotions of how they might react under certain circumstances, cope with various emotions, and influence the range of outcomes. Role playing is particularly beneficial for those who tend to empathize with only one side of a situation. Assigning them a contrasting role increases their sensitivity to all sides of an issue and their appreciation of the difficulties sometimes involved in making sound administrative decisions.

The value of the role-playing experience is perhaps reinforced by the results of a study that I conducted several years ago which suggested that the role man assumes in life, and his conscious attitudes toward that role, may well be in conflict with the role he would subconsciously prefer to play and the related attitudes with which he would feel more comfortable.[1] In other words, an individual may tend to assume a role, and the decision-making behavior consistent with that role, that he feels is expected of him rather than the role he actually prefers. If this is indeed true, then a role-playing experience might well "free" the participant from such predispositions and permit him to more readily express his subliminal feelings and attitudes as he experiments in the world of possible administrative decision-making alternatives.

In conducting a case study, the discussion leader inevitably will have his own outline of the major aspects of the case which he has prepared in advance to help him "guide" the group discussion as may be appropriate. Often, however, this serves merely as a check-off list, for many groups, and particularly the more experienced, are able to cover the salient points and issues with but a minimum of guidance or "cueing" from the leader. Since the discussion leader is himself a learner, he most probably will be taking notes on new ideas or concerns emanating from the group discussion, which, as with any good instructor, he will use to modify and/or enhance his own "teaching" outline for future case sessions.

So that he is prepared to assist the group in an effective analysis of the case study, the discussion leader should be completely familiar with the decision-making process and have in mind an analytical scheme or problem-solving model to which the circumstances of the case may be applied. While this is most readily used with cases in which a major, immediate, and clearly identifiable problem exists, it can be quite useful in discerning the relevant factors in any case study. It can help in keeping the discussion more focused, and thus more productive, by providing an overall relative picture of where it has been, is at any given point, and seems to be going. It also serves as a reminder of what major factors in the case have not yet been considered.

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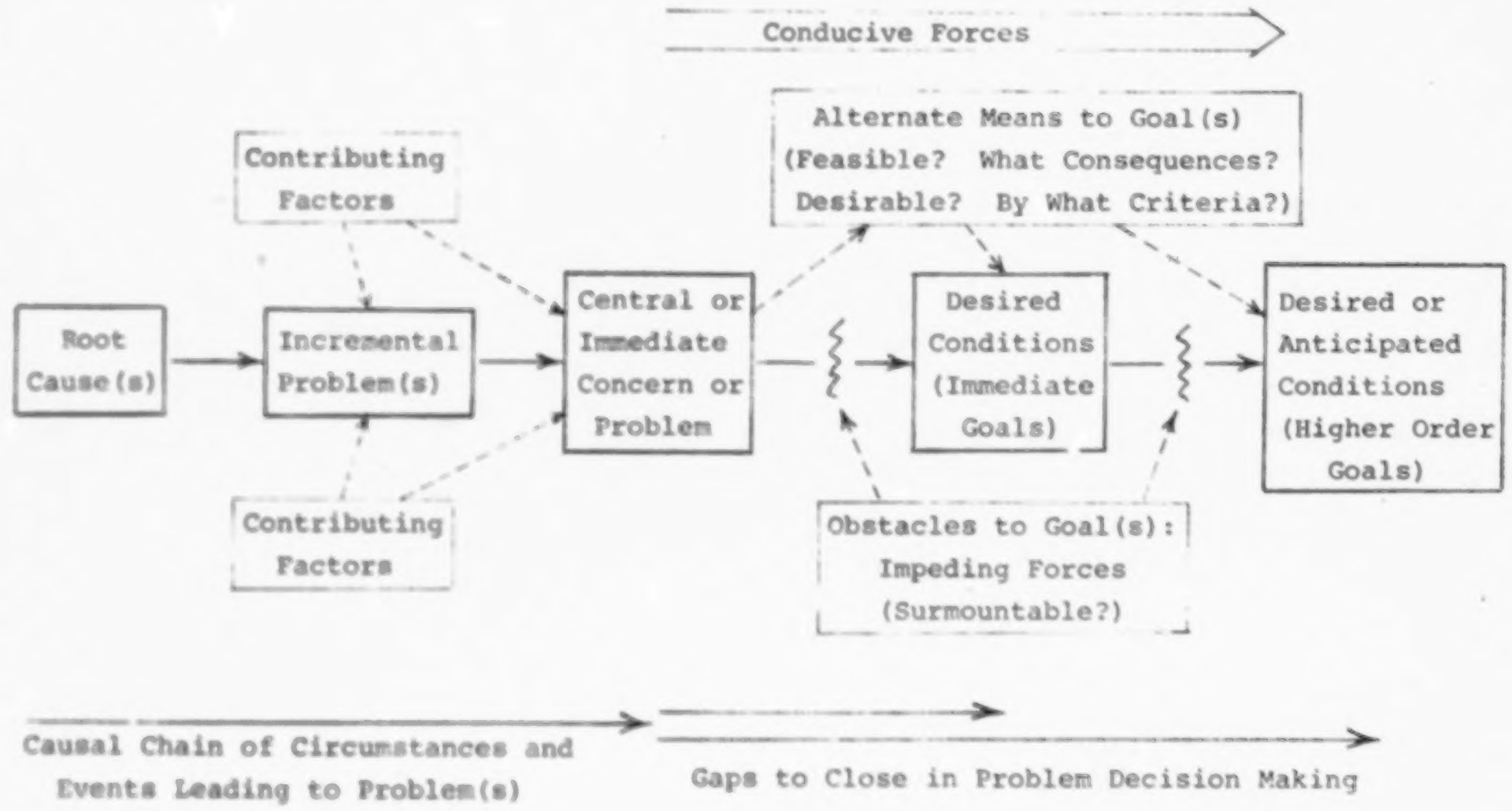
[1] Charles F. Fisher, "A Study of Conflict in Men's Roles" (Unpublished Research Paper, 1958). This was a study of twelve male college subjects who were asked to assume one professional role and hypnotically induced to assume another highly negatively-correlated role. Results of this experiment, as recorded by both pre- and post-responses to the Strong Vocational Test, indicated, with a significance beyond the .05 level, that the subconsciously-induced role inhibited the subject's ability to play the role he was consciously attempting to assume.

This paradigm would allow for an analysis of the entire chain of causal events, contributing factors, pressing concerns, anticipated conditions, immediate and long-range goals, alternate means of attaining those goals, the desirability of each, conducive and impeding forces, and the implications or consequences of any decision(s). Any rendition of such an administrative problem-solving model would be inadequate at best. Nonetheless, I have attempted to diagram my own conceptual framework for case study analysis that I have gradually developed and worked with over the past few years. Since it has seemed to be a useful guide for case discussions, and, in fact, for administrative problem solving in general, I have included it in Table 4.

In summary of the case study method, then, perhaps it is appropriate to review the several distinctive characteristics of this approach to "teaching" college administration: It deals with material that is current, relevant, and factual. It approximates reality in a way that arouses interest (not unlike a good short story) and enables the reader to project himself into the problem situation in an empathetic and active rather than passive way. It is designed to promote independent, constructive thinking, objective analysis, and intercommunication, and to inform, challenge, and motivate the participants. It is a purposeful,

TABLE 4

PROBLEM-SOLVING MODEL FOR ADMINISTRATIVE DECISION MAKING


Conducive Forces
Contributing Factors
Alternate Means to Goal(s) (Feasible? What Consequences? Desirable? By What Criteria?)
Root Cause(s)
Incremental Problem(s)
Central or Immediate Concern or Problem
Desired Conditions (Immediate Goals)
Desired or Anticipated Conditions (Higher Order Goals)
Contributing Factors
Obstacles to Goal(s): Impeding Forces (Surmountable?)
Causal Chain of Circumstances and Events Leading to Problem(s)
Gaps to Close in Problem Decision Making

unified learning process which is thought to effect more skillful problem-solving acumen and a greater awareness of the complex factors that enter into administrative decision making and the formulation of academic policy.[1]

While available evidence, which is mostly impressionistic, would suggest the validity of the foregoing characteristics, the learning effectiveness of the case method has never been empirically tested. The next two chapters of this dissertation will investigate this effectiveness, as demonstrated by the attitude changes of those who have recently experienced the case study method during one of the programs of the Institute for College and University Administrators.

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[1] There are three useful volumes that deal quite extensively with the case method of teaching at the Harvard Business School: Andrews' *The Case Method of Teaching Human Relations and Administration* (Harvard University Press, 1956); McNair and Hersum's *The Case Method at the Harvard Business School* (McGraw-Hill, 1954); and Towl's more recent *To Study Administration by Cases* (Harvard Business School, 1969).

CHAPTER IV

EFFECTIVENESS OF THE CASE METHOD: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

General Methodology

The study described in this chapter is a comparison of the effectiveness of the case study method, as it is currently used in the training of college and university administrators, with a more traditional teaching/learning technique, namely, the position paper-seminar method. My hypothesis is that the case study experience has greater impact on most learners, as measured by positive change in their attitudes, and is therefore a more effective teaching/learning method than the more typical reading-discussion exercise. The purpose of this study has been to test empirically this assumption during one of the institutes sponsored by the American Council on Education's Institute for College and University Administrators. The pre-tested subjects were divided into two comparable subgroups, exposed to the two different methods in a controlled setting, and again tested to determine their change in attitudes.

Rationale

The hypothesis which prompted this study has evolved over the past five years out of my personal involvement with twenty-six institutes in which the case study method was used. From my firsthand impressions as the case discussion leader for fifteen case study sessions and as observer of 135 others, and also from comments made by various participants, it appeared that the case study method provided the participants with an unusual learning experience in which they could vicariously "live" the case by projecting themselves into an authentic problem situation without the actual risk of being "on the firing line." The reader of the case becomes "a part" of an unfolding series of actual events with which he can identify and from which he learns through a process approximating "self-discovery" in real life. In the group analysis and discussion of the case each person has the opportunity to test and modify his individual attitudes and judgments through feedback from his colleagues and the sharing of the group's wisdom. To me this seemed to be an effective teaching/learning method.

My selection of the position paper-seminar experience as the control method was prompted by several considerations: 1. Reading books, papers, articles, etc., and listening to lectures and speeches continues to be the most basic and common teaching/learning method in the educational process, including workshops and institutes. 2. Neither the reading nor listening experience in itself involves group dynamics in the learning process; both are relatively passive methods of learning. 3. However, when the opportunity for question and discussion of what is read or heard is provided for the learner, then group dynamics comes into play, and attains its optimum when a seminar in the true sense is attained. 4. Such group discussion--the questioning and sharing of ideas in candid Socratic dialogue--has become increasingly accepted as an effective approach to meaningful learning. 5. The case method involves both the reading and a seminar discussion of the case, and therefore the most valid test of its effectiveness would be to compare it with as similarly designed a method as possible, namely, the position paper-seminar technique. 6. Since both methods involve group dynamics, any differing results under experimental conditions, if significant, would be real differences, and could be attributed with some certainty to the difference in treatment effects.

If the case study and position paper-seminar methods, then, were to differ in their instructional effectiveness, how could this best be determined? How might the results be expected to vary? What differences would the "differences" make? And how could these differences be measured? If we were dealing strictly with factual knowledge, a straightforward examination of the subject matter upon entry into and exit from the respective learning experiences would provide a valid basis for comparison. But with both the case study and position paper processes we are dealing primarily with the interaction of the cognitive and affective domains of knowledge--with concepts and judgments--rather than directly with the retention of specific factual information.

In selecting the measurement criterion for this study it was necessary to have dependent variables which likewise could be examined upon entry into and exit from the respective learning experiences. Since the major goal of both the institute and the case method is the improvement of administrative decision making, and since individual attitudes influence administrative behavior, I developed a questionnaire which would determine the change in subjects' attitudes as the direct result of their learning experiences. A comparison of the amount or degree of positive attitude change of those subjects experiencing the case method with that of a similar group experiencing the position paper-seminar method thus provided evidence of both the absolute and relative impact, and therefore the relative instructional effectiveness, of these two methods of teaching administration.

Design and Instrumentation

For a valid comparison of the two teaching/learning methods, it was necessary to have a case study and a position paper which dealt with essentially the same subject matter and which presented the same ideas, concepts, and beliefs. Only in this way could a single attitude questionnaire be designed which would cover those philosophies and principles common to both the case and the position paper. At the same time, the subject matter had to be of a current and relevant nature covering issues which would be of sufficient common concern to all of the participants.

The position paper I selected for this experiment was a recent article authored by a community college president; in it he speaks to universal higher educational opportunity, meeting community and student needs, breaking the "academic lockstep," collegial decision making, effecting academic and particularly curricular reform, and effective styles of academic leadership. To preclude any bias on the part of the reader, I re-titled the article "Higher Education for Everybody Is Not Enough" and removed the identity of the author and his institution. For the purpose of this experiment, then, the article became a "position paper" of anonymous authorship. (See Appendix E.)

Since the author of the position paper was not only a liberal educational philosopher, but also a doer, he and his institution provided the focus for a most appropriate "living" case study. With his permission and the full cooperation of all constituents of the College, I spent two days on campus and in the community interviewing the president; the other administrative officers; departmental chairmen; members of the faculty senate, the student government, the President's Task Force, the faculty "watchdog" committee, and the governing board; Commission chairmen; student radicals, including members of the Black Student Union; other students and faculty members; alumni; residents of the community; and administrators on the central university staff.

From this field research and various documents, then, I wrote up the actual account of how this president introduced and implemented his innovative, if not radical, educational philosophies at his own institution. I lightly disguised the report (mainly changing names) so that the institution and its people would not be readily identifiable. Again, this was to preclude any bias on the part of the reader and discourage the introduction of additional "facts" so that every participant would thus have access to "equal" information. I entitled the resulting case study "Sheffield Community College." (See Appendix F.)

The position paper and case study therefore addressed the same basic concerns--increasing educational opportunity and the relevance of the curriculum--as expressed by the same man. In the paper he advocates his ideas as social critic in an argumentative call to sweeping educational reform; in the case study he expresses these same ideas, not in rhetoric, but in action. From the two documents it was possible to extract a set of principles common to both and develop them into an eighteen-item questionnaire which I used as the instrument for measuring the attitude changes of the subjects in the experiment. (See Appendix G.)

To make the attitude questionnaire discriminating, yet valid, consistent and manageable, I selected a seven-option agreement-disagreement pattern which I then tailored to each of the eighteen items. Since it was anticipated that most responses would indicate at least some agreement, I skewed the option scale in the positive direction for greater discernment. The basic choices common to all of the items are as follows:

A. *Enthusiastically Agree*

B. Strongly Agree (Negligible Reservations)

C. Moderately Agree (Minor Reservations)

D. Slightly Agree (Moderate Reservations)

E. Neutral or No Opinion

F. Disagree (Major Reservations)

G. Strongly Disagree (Critical Reservations)

Selection of Sample

To test my hypothesis in an authentic administrative training environment, I decided on the fall 1971 session of the Institute for Academic Deans which was held at the University of Chicago's Center for Continuing Education during the week of October 31-November 5. From a total of seventy-three applicants for this institute, I selected forty-four individuals for admission (anticipating about 10 per cent attrition) based upon the data provided on the candidates' application forms. As with all of the Institute's programs, to the extent it was feasible participants were selected to represent a cross section of U. S. colleges and universities in terms of institutional type, size, affiliation, and geographic location.

Three people had to cancel in advance of the institute and another three at the last minute because of illness. The resulting thirty-eight participants, all recently-appointed academic vice presidents or deans, had been in their posts an average of one and one-half years and had an average age of forty-three years. As the result of campus exigencies, two of the participants missed one of the test sessions, so the final sample for the experiment was comprised of thirty-six subjects (listed by their institutions in Appendix H).

Although I have no comprehensive nor conclusive evidence, I suspect that the sample in this study is representative of the general population of recently-appointed academic deans in U. S. higher education. Certainly in terms of the subjects' characteristics, and from my personal observations, the sample is typical of the several groups which have participated in the Institute for Academic Deans during recent years.

Procedure of the Study

The week's program (see Appendix D) was similar in design and format to other programs of the Institute, including the scheduling of several case study discussions. As program director of the Institute, I programmed the experiment as part of the "curriculum" midway through the week. At the conclusion of the "Get-Acquainted Session" on the first morning of the Institute (Monday), I administered the eighteen-item attitude questionnaire (Appendix G) to all of the participants, advising them that their responses were to be used for research on the effectiveness of the Institute methods, and would be kept strictly confidential.

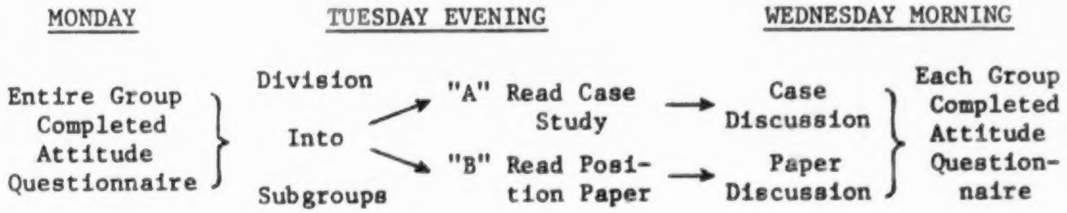
The next evening (Tuesday), based on a predetermined cross-sectional division of the group, I assigned each of the participants to one of two balanced subgroups, each comprised of eighteen members, for the following morning's discussion sessions. The two subgroups were identically matched in every practicable way--by type, size, and affiliation of institution; by ages, disciplines, and earned degrees; by experience and length of time in their positions; and by minority representation. (See Table 5.) By random decision, one subgroup was designated "A" and the other "B." Subgroup A was given the "Sheffield Community College" case study to read that night, while subgroup B was given the position paper "Higher Education for Everybody Is Not Enough."

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF SUBGROUP CHARACTERISTICS

	Subgroup A (N=18)	Subgroup B (N=18)
Type of Institution		
Independent	5	4
Protestant	5	5
Catholic	3	3
Public	5	6
Two-Year (Included Above)	3	2
Enrollments		
Up to 1,000	7	7
1,000 to 2,500	5	5
2,500 to 7,500	3	3
Over 7,500	3	3
States Represented	16	13
Subjects' Ages		
Mean	43 yrs.	43 yrs.
Median	43 yrs.	44 yrs.
Range	35-53 yrs.	31-51 yrs.
Minorities		
Racial	2	4
Women	2	1
Earned Doctorates	15	16
Major Discipline Areas		
Education	7	7
Humanities and Social Sciences	6	6
Physical Sciences	5	5
Current Position		
Academic V.P. or Provost	2	2
Academic Dean	5	5
Dean of the College or School	8	7
Dean of Faculty or Studies	3	4
Time in Position		
Mean	1 yr. 6 mo.	1 yr. 7 mo.
Median	1 yr. 3 mo.	1 yr. 3 mo.
Range	4 mo. to 3 yr. 7 mo	2 mo. to 3 yr. 5 mo.
Most Recent Position		
Faculty (Incl. Dept. Chairmen)	12	10
Other Administration	6	8

During the three-hour experiment the following morning (Wednesday) the two subgroups were kept isolated from each other. During the first half of this period I met with subgroup B and moderated a seminar discussion of the position paper which only the subjects in this subgroup had read the evening before. At the conclusion of this session the participants again filled out the attitude questionnaire. During the second half of the morning I met with subgroup A and led the discussion of the case study which only this subgroup had read the previous evening. At the end of this session the participants filled out the same questionnaire that they, too, had completed earlier in the week. The procedure follows:


MONDAY
TUESDAY EVENING
WEDNESDAY MORNING
Entire Group Completed Attitude Questionnaire
Division Into Subgroups
"A" Read Case Study
"B" Read Position Paper
Case Discussion
Paper Discussion
Each Group Completed Attitude Questionnaire

While I met with each subgroup, the other subgroup was meeting separately in a completely unrelated case discussion. Each subgroup had its mid-morning coffee break within its own meeting room and remained in that same room for its second session during the latter half of the morning, a precaution to preclude any subgroup interaction. The other case discussion leader and I switched rooms during the break.

In leading the case study discussion with subgroup A, I endeavored to be directive only to the extent of keeping the discussion "on track." In other words, I attempted to lead it as the case discussion is normally led (see Chapter III), permitting the participants to explore those aspects of it which were most relevant to them while occasionally clarifying points and introducing thought-directed questions or considerations.

I did not have to "directly" introduce discussion of any of the major principles contained in the case, for the participants readily identified with the idea that the case was an actual situation--it was authentic and therefore it dealt with "real" problems and issues. They appeared to be aroused by the opportunity to explore these concerns (which, to some, seemed to be new considerations). It was not necessary for me to "call" on any of the subjects, for all entered freely, and with considerable enthusiasm, into the discussion.

This particular case did not directly involve an academic dean nor present any "immediate" dilemma or problem-solving situation, as do many case studies. Nor did it readily lend itself to the use of role-playing, which can be an effective supplementary learning technique. Furthermore, time restrictions precluded the use of break-down or "buzz" discussion sessions. Any of these factors might have stimulated even more participant involvement and perhaps even greater attitude change. Nonetheless, the case discussion still evoked some involved and meaningful dialogue, not to mention some apparent "self-discovery," and provoked, as one subject phrased it, "the rethinking of a lot of things."

In moderating Subgroup B's seminar discussion, I attempted to be non-directive in the true seminar sense. However, two participants questioned the purpose of their reading the position paper, stating that they "could always read such papers at home." I explained that it was important background for our discussion and that it had relevance for everyone. This no doubt prompted me to be more directive than I had planned (as directive, perhaps, as with the case study group), and we soon moved, with my prompting, into some very meaningful and spirited discussion. However, I still found it necessary to introduce a few of the major principles which were being neglected, and to call on two subjects to attain 100% group participation.

In neither group discussion was the identity of the president or the institution revealed. Nor did anyone suspect that the author of the position paper and the president in the case study were one and the same man until the participants were informally discussing their respective subgroup experiences after the experiment was over.

Treatment of Data

To process the questionnaire responses, the seven options common to each of the eighteen items were weighted for agreement ranging from a value of seven for A (at the high-agreement end of the scale) to a value of one for G (at the low-agreement end of the scale). The maximum agreement score for the questionnaire was therefore 126 per subject and 2,268 per subgroup. (See Table 6.) The "before" and "after" summed scores were then calculated for each subject and tabulated for each subgroup to find out the level of agreement expressed "before" vis-a-vis "after" their respective learning experiences, and thus determine the direction and amount of change for each.

TABLE 6

MAXIMUM SUMMED AGREEMENT SCORES

	Number Items		Maximum Weight Each		Number Subjects		Maximum Score
Per Subject	18	x	7	x	1	=	126
Per Subgroup	18	x	7	x	18	=	2,268

Since the change, as anticipated, was positive for both subgroups, the level of significance of difference between the "before" and "after" mean scores was computed for each subgroup using the one-tailed "t" test for correlated means:[1]

$$t = \frac{(M - TM)}{SE_{M_D}} \qquad \text{where:} \quad SE_{M_D} = \sqrt{SE^2_{M_1} + SE^2_{M_2} - 2r_{12}SE_{M_1}SE_{M_2}}$$

$$SE_M = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x^2}{N-1}}}{\sqrt{N}} \qquad \text{and} \quad r_{12} = \frac{\Sigma xy}{\sqrt{\Sigma x^2 \cdot \Sigma y^2}}$$

The reliability of the coefficient of correlation (the Pearson r of the product-moment method) between the "before" and "after" test scores was determined for each subgroup with the use of R. A. Fisher's z-function and the formula:[2]

$$SE_z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-3}}$$

The level of significance of the difference between the independent means of the two subgroups, both before and after their respective learning experiences (or treatments), was calculated using the one-tailed "t" test for uncorrelated means:[3]

$$t = \frac{M_A - M_B}{SE_{M_D}} \qquad \text{where} \qquad SE_{M_D} = \sqrt{SE^2_{M_A} + SE^2_{M_B}}$$

A non-parametric test also was made to determine whether one teaching method was more effective than the other in bringing about attitude change in the direction of greater agreement. The McNemar Test for the significance of change was particularly applicable with the "before and after" design of this experiment since the two subgroups, although similar overall in characteristics, were not actually identical in that the subjects could not be strictly matched into "pairs:"[1]

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[1] Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education (4th ed.; New York: Longmans, Green and Co., Inc., 1953), pp. 139, 190, 226-28.

[2] R. A. Fisher, Statistical Methods for Research Workers (8th ed.; London: Oliver and Boyd, 1941), pp. 190-203.

[3] Garrett, pp. 213, 215, 223.

$$x^2 = \frac{[(A-D)-1]^2}{A+D}$$

where A = no. subjects with positive change
D = no. subjects with negative change

As a further comparison of the effectiveness of the two methods, percentages were determined to show the following substantive changes within each subgroup:

1. Net gain in subgroup test scores (i.e., the net increase in the degree of subgroup agreement).
2. Net positive item changes relative to total net item changes.
3. Gross positive item changes relative to total gross item changes.
4. Gross positive steps (increments) of change relative to total steps of change.
5. Proportion of subjects demonstrating greatest positive change.

A post-facto inductive analysis of each subgroup was conducted to reveal evidence of any relationship between the subjects' characteristics and the nature of their change in attitudes. This included subgroup breakdowns by type and size of institution, and by subjects' ages, time in position, and disciplines. When subgroup change patterns differed, an attempt was made to relate the particular characteristic to traits of the respective treatment method.

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[1] Sidney Siegel, Non-Parametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1956), pp. 61-67.

To determine the relative consistency of subgroup change, I devised a "subject fluctuation index" (which I refer to as SFI) relating gross individual internal change to individual score change:

$$\text{SFI} = \frac{\text{Subject's Total Steps of Change}}{\text{Subject's Score Change}}$$

The difference between mean subgroup SFI's was related by total sample and subject characteristics to the respective learning experiences and score differentials.

"Before" and "after" subgroup scores for specific questionnaire items were compared to determine which items had effected the greatest differences in score change (net attitude change) between the two subgroups. An adaptation of my SFI formula provided an "item fluctuation index" (IFI) to compare the two subgroup's consistency in gross change for each item. The characteristics of those items showing the greatest variance between subgroups in net and/or gross change were then analyzed in light of the two treatment methods.

Finally, from the participants' responses on their program evaluation forms (see Appendix I), which were submitted at the conclusion of the Institute, the "fruitfulness" of the case method, the "helpfulness" of the Institute, and their overall rating of the Institute were tabulated by subgroup and interpreted with respect to the Wednesday morning experiment, the only experience during the week not common to all participants.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY

Significance of Score Changes

Table 7 lists the individual "before" and "after" attitude scores for each subject and gives the respective mean scores with their standard errors (SE) for each subgroup. Subgroup A (the case study method) showed a positive change in mean attitude score of 2.44. Subgroup B (the position paper-seminar method), while also showing a positive change, had a mean score increase of only 0.50. These results clearly indicate that subgroup A showed greater positive change than subgroup B, and that the change was almost five times as great.

Table 8 shows the significance of differences between mean attitude scores. The difference between the "before" mean scores of the two subgroups (Column 2), although somewhat greater than might have been anticipated, was still relatively insignificant in that it could have occurred by chance about one time out of five (Column 7). Ideally the two subgroups would have been matched by initial test scores in addition to their characteristics, but this was not manageable within the constraints of the Institute week. Nor was it essential to the experiment since "before" test score differences were allowed for when comparing the significance of score changes. Matching by individual characteristics was far more critical for subgroup "comparability" in analyzing attitude change resulting from the different treatment methods.

One aspect of this change is evident when comparing the second figure in Column 7 with the first. The difference between the "after"

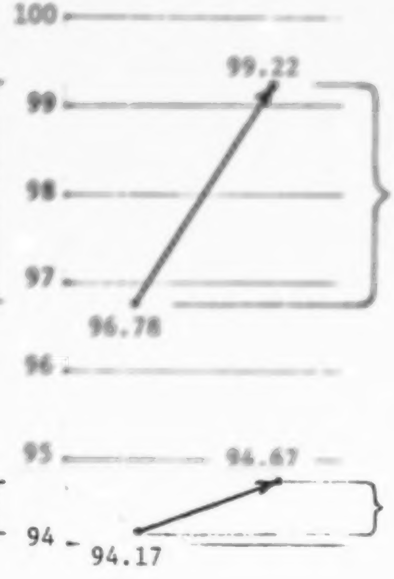
TABLE 7

SUBJECTS' SCORES AND SCORE CHANGES BY SUBGROUP

Subgroup A - Case Study (N=18)					Subgroup B - Paper-Seminar (N=18)				
Subject Number	Before	After		Net Change	Subject Number	Before	After		Net Change
1	94	103	=	+ 9	1	102	104	=	+ 2
2	99	104	=	+ 5	2	99	97	=	- 2
3	112	112	=	0	3	81	81	=	0
4	93	104	=	+11	4	99	98	=	- 1
5	92	95	=	+ 3	5	97	98	=	+ 1
6	86	81	=	- 5	6	90	89	=	- 1
7	88	82	=	- 6	7	96	95	=	- 1
8	104	104	=	0	8	88	80	=	- 8
9	92	102	=	+10	9	77	77	=	0
10	102	105	=	+ 3	10	92	96	=	+ 4
11	79	84	=	+ 5	11	95	94	=	- 1
12	105	112	=	+ 7	12	82	85	=	+ 3
13	99	100	=	+ 1	13	106	108	=	+ 2
14	94	97	=	+ 3	14	110	108	=	- 2
15	97	93	=	- 4	15	84	90	=	+ 6
16	102	106	=	+ 4	16	96	102	=	+ 6
17	104	107	=	+ 3	17	93	97	=	+ 4
18	100	95	=	- 5	18	108	105	=	- 3
Total	1.742	1,786		+44	Total	1,695	1,704		+ 9
Mean	96.78	99.22		+2.44	Mean	94.17	94.67		+0.50
SE_M	1.87	2.33			SE_M	2.20	2.22		

TABLE 8

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN ATTITUDE SCORES



Subgroup (1)	"Before" Mean Score (2)	"After" Mean Score (3)	Change: Difference Between "Before" and "After" Mean Scores (4)	Level of Significance of Difference Between "Before" and "After" Mean Scores (One Tailed "t" Test for Correlated Means) (5)	Correlation Between "Before" and "After" Test Scores (Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients) (6)	Level of Significance of Difference Between Treatment Means (One Tailed "t" Test for Uncorrelated Means) "Before" "After" (7)
A	96.78	99.22	+2.44	< 0.01	.915 (significant at .01 level)	"Before": >0.19 "After": <0.09
B	94.17	94.67	+0.50	> 0.25	.938 (significant at .01 level)	

mean scores of the two subgroups (Column 3) could have occurred by chance less than one time out of ten, or less than half as often as the difference between the "before" mean scores. This suggests that there may have been an intervening influence causing the greater difference in "after" scores, rather than any initial differences between the similarly-comprised subgroups themselves. Furthermore, while the change of both subgroups was positive, subgroup A's change was demonstrably away from either subgroup B's "before" or "after" score, and since A's "before" score was higher than either B's "before" or "after" score, the implication that intervening factors were at work becomes clearer.

Column 6 of the table shows extremely high correlations between the "before" and "after" test scores for the subjects within each subgroup, indicating that the attitude instrument used in this experiment was reliable beyond the .01 level of significance. This suggests that any significant difference in the mean score changes of either subgroup can be attributed to the experimental conditions, namely, the respective treatment methods.

The significance of the difference between the "before" and "after" mean scores for each subgroup is shown in Column 5 of Table 8. Since all of the subjects within each subgroup shared a common learning experience, the "t" test for correlated means was used, and since the change was in the hypothesized direction, the test was one-tailed. These results are perhaps the most revealing of the study, for subgroup A's change was significant beyond the .01 level of probability, while that of subgroup B was not even significant to the .25 level.

In other words, the probability of the respective changes occurring by chance (i.e., with no intervening influences) was less than one in 100 for subgroup A, but greater than one in four for subgroup B. Therefore, it can be assumed that subgroup A's substantially greater attitude change was attributable to its intervening case-study experience, which tends to substantiate the hypothesis that the case method has greater impact in effecting positive attitude change than the paper-seminar technique, and is therefore a more effective teaching/learning method.

Significance of Direction of Change

Focusing on the direction of change, it is evident from Table 7 that twelve (12) of the eighteen subjects in subgroup A (66.7%) changed attitudes in the predicted positive direction, compared with only eight (8) of the eighteen subjects in subgroup B (44.4%) showing positive change. The direction of change is summarized by subgroup in Table 9.

TABLE 9

DIRECTION OF CHANGE BY NUMBER OF SUBJECTS

	Subgroup A (Case Study Method)	Subgroup B (Paper-Seminar Method)
Positive Change	12	8
No Change	2	2
Negative Change	4	8

To test the significance of the observed positive change, the null hypothesis of "equal probability" (H_0) was set up. This asserted that, for those subjects who changed attitudes, the probability that an individual would change in the direction of greater agreement (P_A) is equal to the probability that he would change in the direction of less agreement (P_D) is equal to one-half; that is, H_0 [illegible] $= P_D = 1/2$. The original hypothesis (H_1) was that positive change would be more probable than negative change, or $H_1 = P_A > P_D$.

Applying the chi-square formula to the McNemar Test for the significance of changes provides the critical values of chi square which indicate the significance of the difference between the observed and expected results for each subgroup. From Table 10 it is seen that subgroup A's positive change was significant beyond the .05 level of probability, and for this reason the null hypothesis (H_0) is safely rejected in favor of the original hypothesis (H_1). In discarding the null hypothesis for subgroup A it is reasoned that the observed change cannot be fully explained as temporary and occasional and that therefore it is probably attributable to some intervening influence, namely, the case study experience. In contrast, subgroup B's positive change was not even significant to the .40 level, and therefore the null hypothesis must be retained as valid for this subgroup, which experienced the paper-seminar method.

TABLE 10

SIGNIFICANCE OF NUMBER OF SUBJECTS SHOWING POSITIVE CHANGE

	Subgroup A (Case Study Method)	Subgroup B (Paper-Seminar Method)
Chi Square (x^2)	3.06	0.06
Level of Significance (One-Tailed x^2 Test for Probability)	$P = <.05$	$P = >.40$

Since subgroup A showed a significant tendency to change attitude in the direction of greater agreement with the principles, while subgroup B showed little or no tendency, the difference of the two treatment methods is additionally evidenced and the hypothesis that the case method is more effective than the paper-seminar method in bringing about positive attitude change is further considered tenable.

Significance of Substantive Change

So far we have looked at the differences between the overall subgroup changes, i.e., score means and subject numbers, and compared the significances of the differences, concluding that subgroup A showed a significantly greater tendency toward positive attitude change than subgroup B. A further indication of the degree of change is provided by an analysis of the substantive changes within the questionnaire responses of the individual subjects. Table 11 summarizes the net and gross attitude changes in terms of the number of items and steps (or increments) of change within each subgroup.

Line (1) gives the number of net positive steps of change for the subgroup on the whole which, in effect, is the net change in subgroup score already noted. Line (2) shows the number of positive and negative steps of net per item change by subgroup. The gross number of items changing, i.e., the total for all subjects, is indicated in line (3), while line (4) discloses perhaps the most revealing dimension of gross change--the total number of steps of change for all subjects. Finally, line (5) shows the proportion of subjects within each subgroup demonstrating the greatest amount of positive change. While, with all of these factors, both experimental groups showed positive change, it is manifest that subgroup A showed greater substantive change in all respects than subgroup B: in total attitudinal change, in total positive change,

TABLE 11

SUMMARY OF NET AND GROSS SUBGROUP CHANGES

	Subgroup A (N=18) (Case Study Method)	Subgroup B (N=18) (Paper-Seminar Method)
1. Net Positive Steps of Change (Subgroup's Score Change)	+ 44	+ 9
Percent Net Score Change	+ 2.53%	+ 0.53%
2. Steps of Net Per-Item Change	+ 59	+34
	} ± 74	} ± 59
	- 15	-25
Percent Positive Change	79.7%	57.6%
3. Gross No. of Item Changes	+ 76	+64
	} ±135	} ±124
(for All Subjects)	- 59	-60
Percent Positive Item Changes	56.3%	51.6%
4. Gross No. of Steps of Change	+112	+84
	} ±180	} ±157
(for All Subjects)	- 68	-73
Percent Positive Steps of Change	62.2%	53.5%
5. Percent of Subjects Showing Greatest Positive Change		
6 or More Positive Items	27.8%	11.1%
6 or More Positive Steps	50.0%	27.8%

and in the proportion of positive change to total change.

From Tables 7 and 8 it will be recalled that subgroup B's "before" score was several points below that of subgroup A's, suggesting that subgroup B had greater positive change potential. However, it was subgroup A which clearly demonstrated the greater positive change, change which was both statistically and substantively significant, and which could be attributed to the difference in the treatment methods. These findings all tend to support the hypothesis that the case study experience has greater impact in effecting positive attitude change, and is therefore a more effective teaching/learning method than the more typical position paper-seminar method.

Relationships Between Change and Subgroup Characteristics

To determine whether one treatment method appeared to be more effective than the other with particular types of participants, score changes were grouped by institutional and individual characteristics and their means compared across subgroups. Table 12 summarizes the findings as they relate to the types and sizes of the subjects' institutions.

From section (1) of Table 12 it is apparent that the subjects from Protestant institutions (five in each subgroup) responded overall with the largest score changes, with those in subgroup A showing greater positive change than any other type of institution (+4.4) and those in subgroup B showing the only negative change within that subgroup (-2.0). A comparison of the two subgroups reveals a fairly large divergence of 6.4 score points.

Considering that both of the Protestant "before" subgroup scores were essentially the same, these findings indicate that, while the case

TABLE 12

SCORE CHANGES BY INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

	Subgroup A (Case Study Method) Mean Scores			Subgroup B (Paper-Seminar Method) Mean Scores		
	Before	After	Change	Before	After	Change
1. Type or Affiliation:						
Independent	96.6	98.4	+1.8	91.5	92.5	+1.0
Protestant	96.4	100.8	+4.4	96.6	94.6	-2.0
Catholic	101.0	100.7	-0.3	92.0	94.0	+2.0
Public	94.8	97.8	+3.0	95.0	96.5	+1.6
2. Size of Enrollment:						
Smallest 4 in Subgroup (Enrollment < 750)	97.5	101.8	+4.3	88.2	90.5	+2.3
Largest 4 in Subgroup (Enrollment > 6000)	92.5	93.2	+0.7	89.2	89.0	-0.2

study method seemed to be more effective than the paper-seminar method with all but those from Catholic schools (whose "before" scores were already extremely high), it obviously had the greatest relative impact on the participants from Protestant institutions. This suggests that representatives of Protestant colleges and universities are perhaps the most receptive to learning by the case study method, and are the least positively influenced by the paper-seminar method.

Comparing the score results by institutional size as shown in section (2) of Table 12 again demonstrates that the case method effected greater positive change among those from both the smallest colleges and the largest universities. As might be expected, subjects from the smaller schools in subgroup A showed a considerably greater tendency toward positive change than those from the larger institutions, possibly because in general they may be less "worldly," less set in their ways and opinions, and thus more receptive to new considerations and ideas as may be introduced through the case study experience.

Table 13 contains score changes as they relate to subjects' ages, experience, and major academic fields. Section (1) reveals that it was the older participants who had the greatest score changes, with those in subgroup A showing substantial positive change (+5.8) while those in subgroup B showed negative change (-3.6). This surprisingly large divergence of 9.4 score points, even though the older in A had a lower mean agreement score to begin with, suggests that the case method was considerably more effective than the paper-seminar method with the older subjects, who in subgroup B, actually seemed to be somewhat "turned off." Perhaps the older are less impressed with rhetoric and more receptive to new, meaningful learning experiences. The younger, on the other hand, were already in high agreement with the questionnaire statements, and the case method had little influence on their final scores.

From section (2) of Table 13 we find that the case method effected greater positive change than the paper-seminar method with both the least and most experienced participants; however, the differences are not significantly large. It is interesting to note, nonetheless, that the more experienced in subgroup A, who had relatively high "before" scores, increased in agreement, while those in subgroup B, whose "before" score was 7.6 points lower, showed a slight decrease in agreement.

TABLE 13

SCORE CHANGES BY SUBJECT CHARACTERISTICS

	Subgroup A (Case Study Method) Mean Scores			Subgroup B (Paper-Seminar Method) Mean Scores		
	Before	After	Change	Before	After	Change
1. Subjects' Ages						
Youngest 5 in Subgroup (Under 41 Years)	99.0	98.8	-0.2	98.6	100.2	+2.6
Oldest 4 in Subgroup (Over 47 Years)	91.0	96.8	+5.8	97.8	94.2	-3.6
2. Time in Post						
Least Experienced 4 in Subgroup (Under 8 Months)	95.0	97.5	+2.5	100.8	102.8	+2.0
Most Experienced 5 in Subgroup (Over 2 Years)	98.4	100.2	+1.8	90.8	90.0	-0.8
3. Major Fields						
Education (7 in Each Subgroup)	102.9	105.3	+2.4	96.3	96.4	+0.1
Humanities and Social Sciences (6 in Each Subgroup)	94.3	94.8	+0.5	98.8	101.0	+2.2
Physical Sciences (5 in Each Subgroup)	91.2	96.0	+4.8	85.6	84.6	-1.0

The final section of Table 13 is among the most interesting if not revealing, for it discloses the mean subgroup score changes by major fields or academic areas. Those subjects within the physical sciences demonstrated a curious attitude shift, particularly in comparison with those from the humanities. While the physical scientists in subgroup A decisively increased their agreement scores (+4.8), those in subgroup B decreased theirs (-1.0), and from an extremely low initial score at that. The humanists and social scientists in both subgroups increased agreement, but with the change much more evident in subgroup B.

These observations suggest that the case study method is most effective with subjects from the physical sciences and least so with those from the humanities and social sciences, while, in direct contrast, the paper-seminar method is most effective with subjects from the humanities and social sciences and least so with those from the physical sciences. This might be explained in part by the fact that physical scientists tend to be more rationalistic in their approach to problem solving and accommodating new ideas and would thus be more receptive to the case study method of pragmatic, analytical decision making, while the humanists and social scientists are more accustomed to and possibly influenced by the cogently written word as evidenced in the rhetoric of the position paper used in this experiment.

Subjects whose major area of study was education also showed greater positive change with the case study method (+2.4) than with the paper-seminar, where the change was negligible. This is additionally significant in light of subgroup A's extraordinarily high "before" mean attitude score, and suggests that even professionally trained educators may experience more effective learning through the case study method.

Another characteristic of the subjects in this experiment, which could be determined only after-the-fact, is the amount of internal "fluctuation" experienced by each participant in the process of "changing his mind" following his particular learning experience. This characteristic is actually one additional measure of change itself, for it reveals the individual's consistency (or diversity) of gross internal change relative to his absolute or net change in attitude. By dividing his total steps of positive and negative change by his actual score change we have what I have termed the "Subject Fluctuation Index" (SFI). Comparing the mean SFI's of the two subgroups by total sample and then by age and major fields provides some insight into the relative decision-making consistency evoked by the different treatment methods.

TABLE 14

MEAN SUBJECT FLUCTUATION INDICES BY SUBGROUP

	Subgroup A (Case Study Method) Mean SFI	Subgroup B (Paper-Seminar Method) Mean SFI
Total Subgroup	3.0	4.7
Youngest 5 in Subgroup	2.3	3.2
Oldest 4 in Subgroup	1.9	5.0
Education	4.5	4.7
Humanities and Social Sciences	1.7	3.6
Physical Sciences	2.5	6.1

From Table 14 it can be seen that the subjects in subgroup A, which had shown greater gross and net subgroup change, greater positive change, and a greater proportion of positive change, had a lower mean SFI (3.0) than did those in subgroup B (4.7), indicating that they experienced less average internal fluctuation in deciding on their "after" questionnaire responses. In other words, the case study subjects as individuals were more consistent in their direction of attitudinal change than the paper-seminar subjects. This suggests that the case study method may not only be more effective as a learning method, but also more efficient with respect to the decisiveness of what is learned. Perhaps the deliberative process in the case discussion provides the opportunity to explore doubts with greater focus and more objectivity and thus facilitate the self-analysis of attitudes and the conviction of decisions.

Observing the SFI's by subject age and field adds dimension to the subgroup mean score changes noted in Table 13. In subgroup A the older subjects and the physical scientists, both of whom showed high positive score change, had relatively low SFI's, while their counterparts in B, who showed considerable negative score change, had relatively high SFI's. This implies that the case method is substantially more conducive to consistency in attitude change than is the paper-seminar method particularly with subjects who are (a) older, and/or (b) from the physical sciences. Further analysis reveals that those who were both older and physical scientists (two in A and one in B) tended to react the most positively of all subjects with the case method and the most negatively of all subjects with the paper-seminar method, but with about equal decisiveness between methods.

Item Analysis By Subgroup Change

It will be recalled that the attitude questionnaire used in this experiment (Appendix G) contained eighteen items which incorporated the educational principles common to both the position paper (Appendix E) and the case study (Appendix F). These eighteen items may be grouped under three general themes or subject areas as follows:

I. Social Needs and Educational Opportunity--Items 1 through 5.

II. Extension of the Curriculum--Items 6 through 10.

III. Effecting Educational Change--Items 11 through 18.

Table 15, which gives mean subgroup scores and score changes for each of these thematic categories, indicates that subgroup A showed consistent positive change in all three areas, while subgroup B showed negative change in area II and negligible change in area III.

TABLE 15

SUBGROUP SCORES AND SCORE CHANGES BY THEMATIC CATEGORY

	Subgroup A (N=18) Case Study Method Mean Item Score			Subgroup B (N=18) Paper-Seminar Method Mean Item Score		
Category	Before	After	Change	Before	After	Change
I.	97.4	99.8	+2.4	94.4	97.0	+2.6
II.	101.8	103.8	+2.0	99.4	98.4	-1.0
III.	93.2	96.0	+2.8	90.8	90.9	+0.1

Subgroup scores and score changes for all of the eighteen items are listed in Table 16 and are presented in graphic form in Table 17. The final column of Table 16 shows the difference between the net per-item

TABLE 16

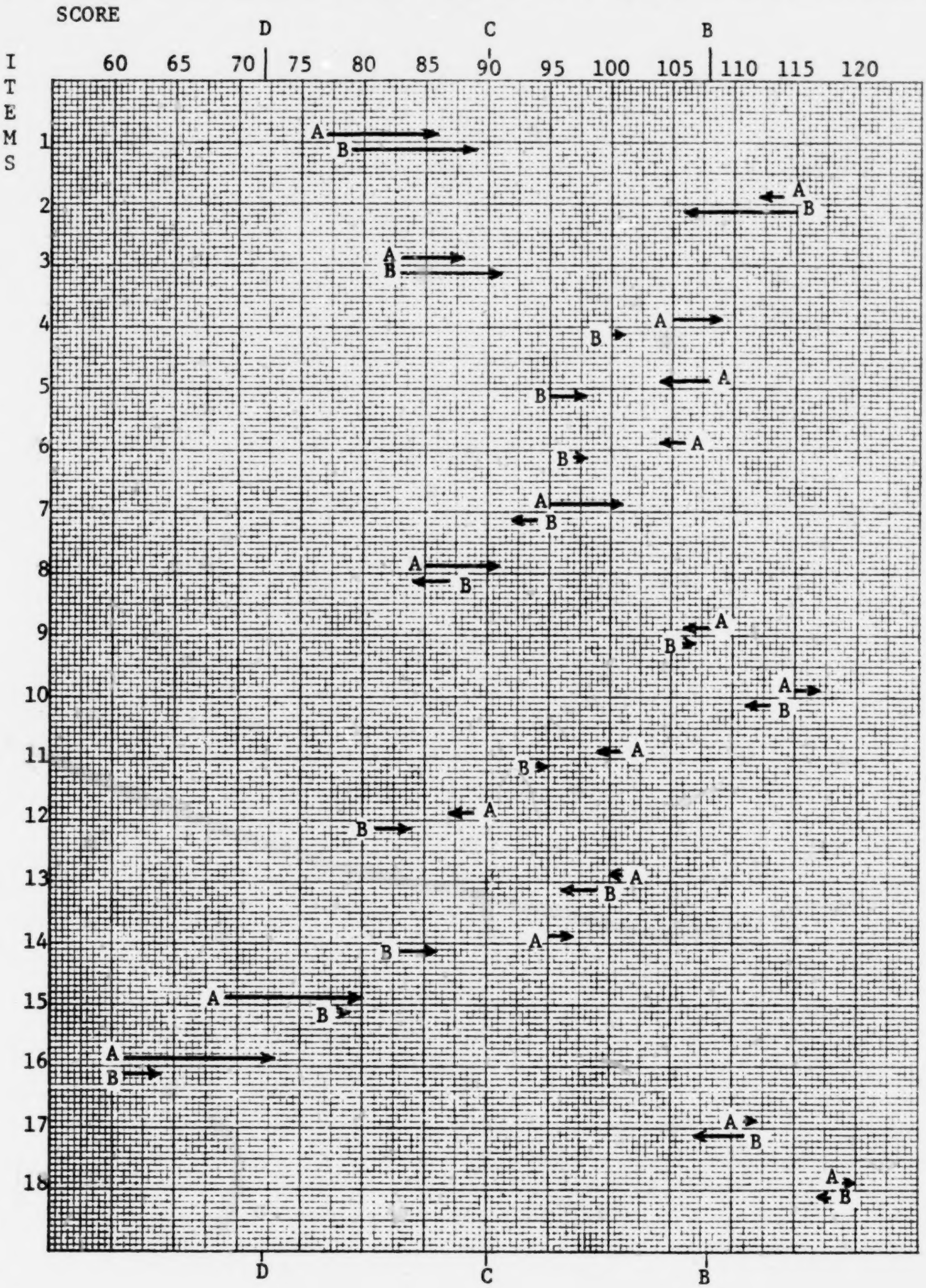
SUBGROUP SCORES AND SCORE CHANGES BY ITEM

Item No.	Subgroup A (N=18) Case Study Method			Subgroup B (N=18) Paper-Seminar Method			Difference Between Changes
	Before	After	Net Change	Before	After	Net Change	
1	77	86	+ 9	79	89	+ 10	1
2	114	112	- 2	115	106	- 9	7
3	83	88	+ 5	83	91	+ 8	3
4	105	109	+ 4	100	101	+ 1	3
5	108	104	- 4	95	98	+ 3	7*
6	106	104	- 2	97	98	+ 1	3*
7	95	101	+ 6	94	92	- 2	8*
8	85	91	+ 6	87	84	- 3	9*
9	108	106	- 2	106	107	+ 1	3*
10	115	117	+ 2	113	111	- 2	4*
11	101	99	- 2	95	94	- 1	1
12	89	87	- 2	81	84	+ 3	5*
13	101	100	- 1	99	96	- 3	2
14	95	97	+ 2	83	86	+ 3	1
15	69	80	+ 11	78	79	+ 1	10
16	61	73	+ 12	61	64	+ 3	9
17	111	112	+ 1	111	107	- 4	5*
18	119	120	+ 1	118	117	- 1	2*
Total	1,742	1,786	+ 44	1,695	1,704	+ 9	83
Mean	96.78	99.22	+2.44	94.17	94.67	+ 0.50	4.61

*Divergent Differences

TABLE 17

GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION OF ITEM CHANGES



changes of the two subgroups. Those differences representing divergence, that is, where the subgroups changed in opposite directions, are noted with an asterisk. Half of the changes (i.e., nine) were in fact divergent, including all of those in category II.

From the bottom of the final column in Table 16 we see that the mean item variance between subgroup score changes was 4.61 points. That is to say, the subgroups differed in the amount of their net per-item change on an average of 4.61 score points per item for the entire questionnaire. There would seem to be a fairly even distribution of the varying degrees of difference throughout the questionnaire with no pronounced categorical pattern or grouping of major differences by subject area. Indeed, of the six items effecting the greatest difference between subgroup changes (7 or more points), two may be found in each of the three thematic categories.

These six items (2, 5, 7, 8, 15 and 16) constitute the most effective "third" of the questionnaire in terms of evoking the greatest differences in attitude changes between the two treatment methods. It is evident that subgroup A showed positive change on four of the six items, subgroup B on three. Closer observation of the distinctive item features offers some clues as to possible reasons for the differing responses. These are explored in the following paragraphs.

Item 2. Providing higher educational opportunity for all who can benefit is a legitimate goal of U. S. society. Both subgroups had comparable, extremely high "before" scores for this item, and it is therefore not too surprising that their change at least was not positive. Subgroup A's change (-2) was negligible compared with subgroup B's (-9), however. Perhaps this was because the case study demonstrated a "living," concrete example of enhancing educational opportunity which reconfirmed the subjects' attitudes, while the position paper, though presenting an articulate case for this greater opportunity, tended to "lecture" rather than excite the imagination.

Item 5. An institution of higher learning has a responsibility to be involved in effecting desirable social change by making its curriculum more responsive to the needs of all segments of its community--of all classes and all races. With this item subgroup A showed negative attitude change (-4) in contrast to B (+3), though A's initial score was considerably higher than B's (by 13 points). Subgroup A's drop in score might be indicative of a greater realization of the practical limitations of the statement, for while the case, like the paper, expressed the need for such responsibility, it also revealed some of the associated problems which were candidly explored with greater focus in the case discussion.

Item 7. Live experience itself, properly explored and understood, can provide the basis for a meaningful curriculum around which knowledge can be organized and developed. "Before" scores were similar, but subgroup A increased its score (+6) whereas subgroup B's score decreased (-2). This divergence of 8 points might be attributable to the more specific nature of the case in which a workable model of "experience" curriculum was planned and developed. This in turn helped stimulate more objective dialogue than did the more abstract nature of the paper-seminar.

Item 8. Students should be "partners" in planning their own curriculum so that the learning experience will be more relevant to them. Once again, initial scores were comparable, but subgroup A showed positive change (+6) while subgroup B's change was negative (-3). This might be explained by the fact that the case study again presented a cogent example of how student involvement could be realistically implemented, in comparison with the paper's more general treatment of the need for such involvement.

Item 15. In effecting change which is generally recognized as beneficial and desirable, the ends at times may justify the means, even when it may seem to be disadvantageous to some. This was a fascinating item, for it expressed a philosophy of change not frequently debated in public forum. Subgroup A's change was substantially positive (+11) whereas subgroup B's change was negligible (+1), though A's "before" score had been 9 points lower. The reason for A's dramatic increase in agreement may have been in part because the case colorfully illustrated an apparently successful, somewhat unorthodox attempt to meet a clearly identified need, while recognizing, in some cases after the fact, disadvantages inherent in any attempt to change the "status quo."

Item 16. Truly effective change in higher education must penetrate the very root of tradition; it must be more "revolutionary" than "evolutionary." Initial responses to this statement were the lowest of any of the questionnaire items (61 for both subgroups) but, curiously, it was here that subgroup A expressed its greatest increase in agreement (+12), while subgroup B showed relatively little change (+3). This difference, as with item 15, may be due to the case study's prototype of a "revolutionary" approach to effecting "needed" educational change. Whereas the position paper was perhaps admonishing, the case study was an object lesson of what could, in fact, be accomplished--not just the "why," but also the "how."

Table 18 compares the gross change exhibited by the subgroups with each of the eighteen items. It will be noted that there are seven items on which half or more of the subjects showed change in subgroup A

TABLE 18

GROSS PER ITEM CHANGE BY SUBGROUP

Subgroup A (N=18) Case Study Method					Subgroup B (N=18) Paper-Seminar Method				
Item No.	No. Subjects Changing	Steps of Change		Σ ±	Item No.	No. Subjects Changing	Steps of Change		Σ ±
		+	−				+	−	
1	9	11	2	13	1	7	10	0	10
2	6	2	4	6	2	8	1	10	11
3	6	8	3	11	3	7	9	1	10
4	4	5	1	6	4*	7	5	4	9
5	7	3	7	10	5	7	6	3	9
6	8	3	5	8	6*	7	4	3	7
7	10	10	4	14	7*	13	6	8	14
8	5	7	1	8	8	4	1	4	5
9	6	3	5	8	9*	9	5	4	9
10	4	3	1	4	10	7	3	5	8
11	4	1	3	4	11*	8	4	5	9
12*	11	7	9	16	12	6	5	2	7
13*	10	6	7	13	13	4	1	4	5
14	11	7	5	12	14	8	9	6	15
15	8	12	1	13	15	5	3	2	5
16	11	15	3	18	16	6	7	4	11
17*	9	5	4	9	17	6	2	6	8
18*	6	4	3	7	18	5	2	3	5
Total	135	+112	−68	±180	**Total**	124	+83	−74	±157
Mean	7.5	6.2	3.7	10.0	**Mean**	6.9	4.6	4.1	8.7

*Items showing highest IFI's (7.0 or higher)

(1, 7, 12, 13, 14, 16 and 17) while there are only two such items in subgroup B (7 and 9). The one item common to both subgroups in this respect is number 7, which we have already examined. Item 7 elicited attitude change from 23 of the total 36 subjects in the experiment, more than any other single item. Appropriately, with the case method this change was mostly positive; with the paper-seminar method, mostly negative.

To determine each item's internal fluctuation level for each subgroup (i.e., the subgroup's consistency of gross internal change relative to its net change per item), an adaptation of the SFI formula provided an "Item Fluctuation Index" (IFI). Dividing the total steps of positive and negative change for each item (from Table 18) by the actual subgroup score change for that item (from Table 16) provided an indication of the decision-making consistency occurring by subgroup within each item.

Those items with the highest IFI's (7.0 or higher), signifying low consistency in change direction, are noted with an asterisk in Table 18. It can be seen that subgroup A had high IFI's on four items (12, 13, 17 and 18) whereas subgroup B showed high IFI's on five (4, 6, 7, 9 and 11), indicating that the paper-seminar method witnessed greater indecisiveness on one more item than did the case method. Of the six items previously discussed which effected the greatest differences in changes between treatment methods, only one--again item 7--had a high IFI, and this, not surprisingly, was in subgroup B.

Overall, subgroup A was found to have lower IFI's than B on ten of the questionnaire items, while subgroup showed lower IFI's than A on the remaining eight items. Of the items with the greatest differences in score changes, subgroup A had lower IFI's than subgroup B on five of the six, with a mean of 1.9 compared to 3.6 for B. In other words, the case method demonstrated greater consistency in the direction of attitudinal change than did the paper-seminar method with 55.6% of all of the items and with 83.4% of those items which were the most effective in distinguishing the difference in attitude change between the two treatment methods. This indicates that, when the methods differ most in their results, those subjects experiencing the case method are considerably more consistent in their attitude change, which suggests that they are more decisive, and therefore more efficient in the decision-making process than the subjects experiencing the paper-seminar method.

Relationships Between Change and Institute Evaluations

Table 19 presents a summary by subgroup of the subjects' responses on their program evaluation forms (see Appendix I) which were submitted on the final day of the November, 1971, Institute. Since the Wednesday morning experimental sessions were the only scheduled periods during the institute not common to all participants, their evaluations may in some way reflect this one experience peculiar to each subgroup.

While all subjects participated in the case study method on several occasions during the week (see the program schedule, Appendix D), it is apparent from Table 19 that those in the Wednesday morning case study experimental group rated the Institute somewhat higher overall (based on a summary of their characteristic ratings). Also, a larger number of subjects in subgroup A considered the Institute "exceptionally" helpful and found the case study method to be more "fruitful" than those in the paper-seminar method.

TABLE 19

EVALUATION OF THE INSTITUTE FOR ACADEMIC DEANS

Item	Rating	Subgroup A Case Study Method	Subgroup B Paper-Seminar Method
Overall Rating of the Institute (Summary of Characteristic Ratings)	Outstanding	46.7%	38.9%
	Good to Excellent	46.7	53.7
	Average	6.6	7.4
	Poor	0	0
Helpfulness of the Institute (N = 18 each)	Exceptionally	5	1
	Considerably	12	16
	Somewhat	1	0
	Have No Idea	0	1
	Not Particularly	0	0
Fruitfulness of the Case Study Method (N = 18 each)	Very Fruitful	13	11
	Fairly Fruitful	5	7
	Not Very Fruitful	0	0

To determine whether there was any relationship between the direction and degree of the subjects' attitude changes during the mid-week experiment and their final overall rating of the Institute, a correlation coefficient was computed for each subgroup using the rank-difference method, relating positive-to-negative score changes with high-to-low Institute ratings. (The latter was determined by summarizing the individual characteristic ratings which provided a ten-point high-to-low scale spread.) The results are shown in Table 20.

TABLE 20

CORRELATION BETWEEN ATTITUDE CHANGE AND INSTITUTE RATING

	Subgroup A Case Study Method	Subgroup B Paper-Seminar Method
Coefficient of Correlation (Rank-Difference Method)	.73	.08
Significance	<.01	Not Significant

The above findings indicate that there was a highly significant positive correlation between the direction of attitude change and the level of Institute rating with the subjects in subgroup A, while there was no significant correlation between attitude change and Institute rating with the subjects in subgroup B. In other words, those subjects in the case-study experimental group who had the greatest positive attitude change rated the Institute highest, while those in subgroup B showed practically no relationship between attitude change and their Institute evaluations.

This phenomenon raises an intriguing question in light of the fact that all of the subjects participated as a group in six common case study discussions during the week. Why, then, was there such a marked correlation difference between the two experimental subgroups? Why would not subgroup B, since its members had the same experience as subgroup A with the other case study sessions (where presumably attitude change was also in effect) also have shown a high correlation with its Institute rating comparable to that of subgroup A?

Perhaps the answer rests with the fact that the uncorrelated attitude change of subgroup B was the product of the paper-seminar experimental session, and, as far as we know, of that session only. Had the subjects in subgroup B been tested for attitude change resulting from the case studies they experienced during the week, and not the paper-seminar session, it is very possible, if not probable, that their positive change would also have been highly correlated with their final Institute ratings similar to the way subgroup A's was.

While this is a supposition, it nonetheless suggests another important distinction between the case study and paper-seminar methods--namely, that those who experience attitude change during a case study session tend to rate the Institute much more in accordance (that is, in positive correlation) with their attitude change than do those who change attitudes as the result of the paper-seminar method. This in turn suggests that the case study method is particularly influential to the average participant in determining his own appraisal of the Institute's effectiveness, and is therefore, by comparison, more significant in a self-evaluation of the learning process than perhaps are other learning methods.

Specific comments on the case study method from all of the subjects' evaluation forms are listed in juxtaposition by subgroup in Table 21. A comparison of these first-hand impressions reveals not only that more of those in subgroup A responded, but that they seemed to be somewhat more perceptive in their comments and to react more positively overall to the case study approach than did the subjects in subgroup B. It is difficult to account for this with any certainty, but perhaps it is because those in subgroup A experienced the one additional case study, which was their very significant contribution, unwitting as it was, to this particular study of the effectiveness of the case study method.

TABLE 21

PARTICIPANTS' COMMENTS ON THE CASE STUDY METHOD

Subgroup A (N = 18)	Subgroup B (N = 18)
A great aid in defining problems. Well planned to maximize time. Confronted pertinent problems. Presented opportunity to logically develop alternative solutions--and consider their implications. I'm convinced that participant-learning through a problem-solving medium can be most productive. A meaningful learning experience! I have a much better perspective of the dean's role. Entire group could attack and consider a common situation. All that's necessary to relate the cases to ones own problems is to change the names, dates and places! Required discipline in study and critical analysis, and alertness in assessing actions. Called attention to my weaknesses *and* prejudices. Provided insights into my problems. An incentive to forge ahead with plans for change. Perhaps shorter cases would help zero in on specific issues. Could use more role playing and simulation. Fruitfulness depends upon the quality of the case leaders. Smaller discussion groups (like Wednesday morning) would be more conducive to discussion.	Presents a well-defined frame of reference. Dealt with reality--not just theory. Useful in structuring development of problem-solving approaches. Possible to be *both* subjective and objective. Non-theoretical; provided the opportunity to confront real problems. Brought out principles with wide application. Provokes the same kind of thinking needed in real situations. The fact that these were *real* cases made them meaningful. Gave me the benefit of varied approaches to problems. More meaningful than just reading a paper. Some cases did not seem entirely realistic. Sometimes cases were too pedantic and/or intimidating rather than positively reinforcing and stimulating.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of Procedure and Findings

This has been a study of the use and effectiveness of the case study method in the inservice training of college and university administrators. It has been based on several premises developed in the early chapters. (1) There is a continuing and, in fact, an increasing need, for the effective training of college and university administrators in the United States. (2) A large proportion of top-level academic administrators will probably continue to assume their posts with little if any administrative experience, many presidents and deans coming directly from the faculty ranks. (3) The Institute for College and University Administrators of the American Council on Education conducts short-term, inservice training seminars for these recently-appointed major administrative officers--offering the most extensive program series of any association or organization. (4) The case study method is the Institute's principle means of instruction; its use has been acclaimed by former participants as a meaningful learning experience and one of the major strengths of the Institute's programs. (5) The case study method, by providing a group-centered, rationalistic approach to vicarious experience in realistic decision making, is believed by the Institute to be one of the most effective methods of teaching college and university administration. (6) Evidence of this, however, has been wholly impressionistic, and the case method has never before been empirically evaluated.

The purpose of the Institute is to help meet the national need for more effectively prepared college and university administrators by helping its participants, particularly through the case method, better appreciate the complex factors that enter into academic policy and decision making, and thus improve their own administrative behavior. Any evaluation of subsequent behavior as an indication of the effectiveness of the case method, however, would be only suggestive, because of the possible influence of intervening factors.

The focus of this study, therefore, was to determine the change in the participants' administrative attitudes (i.e., positions) at the immediate conclusion of specific learning experiences, assuming that, to the extent that the change endured, it would in turn influence later administrative behavior. The research was based on the hypothesis that the case study experience has greater impact on most learners, as measured by positive attitude change, and thus may be a more effective teaching/learning method than the more traditional reading-discussion approach.

The thirty-six subjects in the study were all participants in the Institute for Academic Deans. For the experiment they were divided into two balanced groups of eighteen, matched in every feasible way by individual and institutional characteristics. One subgroup was assigned the case study method and the other, the paper-seminar method, both of which covered the same topics and issues as expressed by the same man (the college president in the case had authored the position paper) and were moderated by the same discussion leader. An eighteen-item attitude questionnaire, containing the principles common to both the case study and the position paper, was used to test the subjects before and again immediately following their respective experimental sessions.

Analysis of the subgroup, individual, and item score changes (attitude changes) tended to support the assumption that the case method would result in a more effective learning experience. The questionnaire proved reliable beyond the .01 level, and since the attitude changes were immediate they were real, and to the extent they were significant, they could be attributed to the respective learning methods.

The attitude changes demonstrated by the case method group were indeed significant--beyond the .01 level (less than one percent probability of occurring by chance)--while the attitude changes of the paper-seminar group were not even significant to the .25 level (greater than twenty-five percent probability of occurring by chance). An analysis of the predicted positive direction of attitude change shown by individual subjects was significant beyond the .05 level with the case method group, but not even significant to the .40 level with the control group. And finally, with regard to substantive change, the case method group experienced greater net and gross attitude change in terms of both the number of items and increments of score change, and respectively in total attitude change, total positive attitude change, and the proportion of positive change to total change.

These findings, then, suggest that the hypothesis is tenable--that the case study method does appear to have greater impact on most learners, particularly in effecting positive attitude change, than does the more common position paper-seminar method.

Further analysis of each subject's attitude changes revealed that the case study group showed greater overall individual internal consistency, or less indecisiveness, in their questionnaire responses. It further disclosed that the case method had the greatest total differential impact (which was positive in all categories for the case method group) with participants from protestant-related institutions, from the smaller institutions, and/or who were older, who were more experienced in their positions, or who were from the physical sciences. Of these, the most striking divergences in attitude change were observed with the protestant representatives and the physical scientists.

An analysis of attitude changes on individual questionnaire items showed significant positive change with the case method group in all three of the questionnaire's thematic categories, while the paper-discussion group had significant positive change in only one of these areas. Those items showing the greatest differences between subgroup attitude changes were evenly distributed over all three areas. Subjects experiencing the case study method demonstrated greater consistency than the control group in their direction of attitude change with the majority of items, and with over eighty percent of those items representing the most effective third of the questionnaire in distinguishing between the two treatment methods (i.e., which had evoked the greatest change differences between groups).

In their evaluations of the Institute, all participants were very positive in their responses. However, the case method experimental group rated the Institute experience higher than the paper-seminar group in all categories--in their overall appraisal of characteristics, in helpfulness, and in the fruitfulness of the case study method. Furthermore, those in the case study group revealed a highly significant (beyond the .01 level) positive correlation between their Institute ratings and the direction of their attitude change (relating positive ratings with positive score change), while those in the control group showed close to zero correlation.

Conclusions and Implications

To help ensure the validity of this study, several precautions were taken. When each subject entered the experiment, he recorded his own, earlier-formed attitudes (positions) on the questionnaire. Rigidly controlled conditions maintained a stable system throughout the experiment, keeping extraneous influences to a minimum. The two groups were meticulously balanced, their learning experiences as similarly designed as possible, and their subject matter virtually identical; only their treatment methods (i.e., learning materials and techniques) were different. Retesting with the same instrument, which proved reliable, recorded each subject's attitudes at the immediate conclusion of his respective learning session. And finally, variable error components (random fluctuations) were allowed for in the statistical analysis of the attitude score changes of each group.

In light of these provisions, any attitude change demonstrated by either group could be attributed specifically to its respective treatment method to the extent that its score changes were significant. With the extremely high significance shown by the case study group, then, it can be concluded (with greater than ninety-nine percent confidence) that this group's change was effected by the case method experience. At the same time, the lack of significant attitude change on the part of the control group suggests little relationship between its negligible score change and its paper-seminar experience. This indicates, then, that the case study method provided the more effective learning experience, and that the difference between the two methods was significant.

With regard solely to the direction of attitude change on the part of individual subjects, the case method group's predicted positive change was also highly significant, indicating that the high proportion of subjects showing positive change could likewise be attributed (with greater than ninety-five percent confidence) to the case study experience. By contrast, the control group had as many subjects showing negative as positive change, and so direction was insignificant. In this respect, then, the case method was again found to be the more effective method.

The findings of this study, therefore, tend to substantiate the hypothesis that the case study experience has greater impact--as measured by positive change in learners' attitudes--and therefore may well be a more effective teaching/learning method than the more traditional reading-discussion exercise. While it would be virtually impossible to empirically determine the specific reasons for this greater impact, the more detailed analyses of the various findings tend to reinforce my own observations and the impressionistic evidence provided over the years by participants and observers of the case study method.

The case method is designed to be, and would appear to be, a rationalistic approach to learning administration and administrative problem solving, evoking logic, sound judgment, and analytical decision making. It is also objective and specific, dealing with facts and concrete situations. These are perhaps the reasons that the case method had its greatest positive (and relative) impact on the physical scientists, whose professions tend to attract and demand this trait, and the least positive impact on those from the humanities and social sciences. This in turn suggests that the threshold for attitude change, and therefore the effectiveness of learning methods, is related to individual cognitive styles, with the more "rationalistic" or "concrete" being the most receptive to the case method, and the less rationalistic, or more "abstract" (e.g., the humanists and social scientists), the least so.

While a scholarly article or position paper may adequately present theory, administrative principles, and substantiating facts, it nonetheless, as I observed in this study, is often difficult for the learner to relate these matters meaningfully to real life problem-solving situations, even with the aid of planned group discussions. The case method, on the other hand, seems to provide a greater "identification" for the learner by focusing on actual, "living" events, and a greater involvement through meaningful group dialogue that explores ideas and tests individual judgments. Whereas the position paper "advocates" principles through rhetoric, the case study would appear to excite the imagination through illustrating the implementation of ideas.

By vicariously experiencing "reality," the case discussants "discover" for themselves the application of abstract ideas and concepts to specific situations, and the relevance of principles and values to opportunities and actions. They not only explore realistic decision-making alternatives, but gain an appreciation of their practical limitations. Perhaps most important of all, they learn how to anticipate administrative problems, and to take whatever corrective measures may be deemed necessary. In the final analysis, those in a "paper-seminar" experience may know _about_ the situation, but those experiencing the case method claim to feel as though they actually _know_ the situation.

In addition to these observations, this study has shed some new light on the case method that is quite significant. Not only was the case experience, from all indications, a more _effective_ learning method, it also appeared to be considerably more _efficient_, as evidenced by the subjects' lower average internal fluctuation, or greater consistency, in deciding on their "after" questionnaire responses. In other words, the case study subjects, as individuals, were more consistent in their direction of attitudinal change, suggesting that the greater focus and objectivity of the case method may facilitate the self-analysis of attitudes and the conviction of individual decisions, thus enhancing the efficiency of administrative decision-making behavior.

A completely unanticipated outcome of the study was the high positive correlation shown by those in the case method group between their overall evaluation of the Institute and the amount and direction of attitude change they experienced during their experimental session. Those who had the greatest positive attitude change tended to rate the Institute the highest, while those with less positive change or with negative change rated it respectively lower. This is particularly relevant in light of the fact that those in the control group showed essentially no correlation between their ratings and attitude changes.

It might be expected that those who experience the greatest positive learning would be the most appreciative of the particular experience that had effected that learning, and this indeed may explain the high positive correlation found with the case method group. But the fact remains that the paper-seminar control group, some of whose members had also shown positive change, showed no such correlation. This suggests, then, that there was something distinctive between the two methods in eliciting participants' appraisals of the effectiveness of their learning experiences. This distinction might be due to certain qualities of the case method that promote a positive relationship between learning and appreciation (e.g., realism, greater identification, meaningful involvement), or to the absence of such qualities with the paper-seminar method, or to certain characteristics of the paper-seminar experience (e.g., a tendency perhaps to "lecture" with generalizations) that tend to thwart such a relationship. Most likely, it is due to a combination of these factors.

In any event, this phenomenon tends to support the basic assumption that the case study method provides a more effective approach to learning than the paper-seminar method. If a major objective of teaching administration is to effect positive learning as evidenced by positive attitude change, and at the same time and in consonance provide a meaningful learning experience that the learner appreciates, then the case method group in this study met the criterion quite convincingly--in striking contrast to those who experienced the conventional reading-discussion method.

Individual receptivity to learning and learning methods is another factor that should be considered. Although it might be assumed that those who participate in the Institute _are_ interested in learning since they apply to attend in the first place, they nonetheless possess, as does everyone, various degrees of "openness" to the learning process. While some participants in this experiment seemed to be excited by the realism of the case study method, and others "turned off" by the more routine paper-seminar experience, I suspect that, had it been possible to measure how receptive or impressionable the subjects were before the experiment, there would have been a high positive correlation with both attitude change and Institute rating for both groups (though still somewhat lower with the control group), with the more-open and/or less-skeptical participants generally showing the greatest change and highest ratings.

The findings discussed earlier suggested that the case study method may be most effective, in comparison with more typical learning methods, with certain categories of individuals. To have the greatest impact, it would seem, participation for the most part would include older physical scientists from small protestant colleges who are fairly experienced in their posts, and it probably would _exclude_ young humanists from large Catholic universities! Obviously, a narrowly restricted constituency in this sense would seldom be practical or desirable, but the implications of this discovery nonetheless may be relevant to both the design of case discussion sessions and the use and degree of directivity in the "teaching" approach used by the case discussion leader.

The fact that the case study subjects tended to rate their Institute experience in high positive correlation with their attitude changes also has significant implications, not only for the case method, but for the Institute in general. It suggests that the effectiveness of the case approach, though it constituted only one-third of the week's programming in this study, may be the best indicator of the Institute's overall final evaluation, for it would seem to be the most influential factor in the participants' self-appraisal of their total learning experience. This infers that the success of the Institute, as measured by participants' evaluations, depends upon the case method's ability to effect positive attitude change, and emphasizes the critical importance of having appropriate, cogent case studies and proficient discussion leaders.

Even though all expectations for the case method were borne out by the research reported in this study, I must confess that my personal anticipation had been for more pronounced positive attitude change on the part of the case study subjects. But the significance of the change in evidence was more than sufficient to support the proposed hypothesis. Nevertheless, one feels less than confident that the measured attitude changes comprised the totality of the learning that transpired during the experimental sessions. It seems to me that any confirmation of attitudes already possessed would in itself constitute a form of learning, particularly when tested under the scrutiny of the case discussion method. But learning that is not manifest cannot be measured. One therefore must rely upon measuring the change that is evident, and, when it is in the predicted and presumably desired direction, use it as the criterion for assessing the effectiveness of the particular teaching/learning method.

Throughout this study I have alluded to possible reasons for the differing results attained by the two teaching/learning methods. While it was not possible to determine to what extent, if any, the observed attitude changes may have been transitory, they were nonetheless immediate and real, and with the case method group, they were significant. The methods themselves, of course, constituted the experimental variable. The initial difference was the teaching materials--case study vis-à-vis position paper--which in turn provided, not a strikingly different teaching approach, but a different teaching potential and opportunity.

The case method, as we have seen, offered a "living," concrete example of what actually happened, while the position paper merely talked about what the author felt should happen. Both advocated educational reform, but the case study accomplished this through action rather than rhetoric. This generated greater identification among the subjects, who could more readily project themselves into the situation, and thus facilitated the application of the case leading techniques discussed in Chapter III. The apparent result was more relevant and meaningful group dialogue, and in the process, greater learning impact. This, after all, is the crux of the case method, and, I would suggest, the principle explanation for the results of this experiment.

The case study method, supported by the findings of this study, would seem to be an effective, efficient, and popular method of learning college administration. However, as Bauer earlier warned, it must not be considered a "panacea" for solving all of the problems in the administration of higher education. Administration has been defined as both a science and an art. The potential for it must be possessed in advance, and its competencies must be developed. While the case study method is indeed no panacea, when used imaginatively and skillfully, it nevertheless could well be a very effective means of helping to develop these competencies. It just may offer some common improvement to our present diverse methods of training college and university administrators in the United States. And very possibly it could open up some new opportunities.

The results of this study would appear to justify the continued development and utilization of administrative cases in higher education, not only by the Institute for College and University Administrators, but also by other organizations and institutions offering preservice or in-service training programs in college administration. A list of specific recommendations is contained in the following concluding section.

Recommendations

Competent and responsible leadership in American higher education cannot be taken for granted. Every effort must be made to ensure the very best opportunities for the professional preparation and development of those who are to lead our colleges and universities capably. In consideration of this expanding need for more effective administrative training (which was discussed in Chapter II), the use and effectiveness of the case study method (which was explored and developed in the remaining chapters), and my own observations of, and interaction with, administrative training on the national higher education scene over the past several years, the following recommendations are hereby submitted for consideration:

1. That the Institute for College and University Administrators (ICUA) of the American Council on Education continue the use of the case study method in its administrative training institutes, and that the

current proportion of time devoted to case discussions (approximately one-third of the institute program) be maintained.

2. That the Institute for College and University Administrators continue to develop case study materials--at least three or four new cases per year--on current academic concerns and administrative problems in higher education.

3. That the Institute for College and University Administrators consider the feasibility of preparing a "Case Book of Problems in Academic Administration," in loose-leaf form so that it can be supplemented, and with an instructor's manual explaining the case study method and including guidelines for the discussion of each case. This might then be made available at cost for use in administrative training programs.

4. That other national associations seriously consider implementing a program of professional development seminars as needed for recently-appointed administrators from among their own membership. Such seminars might be patterned after those of the ICUA, incorporating the use of the case study method. (In the beginning they might be conducted cooperatively with ICUA assistance.)

5. That these same associations begin developing administrative case studies that would be more appropriate than ICUA cases for their particular clientele, e.g., focusing on the administrative problems of specific types of institutions such as community colleges, or schools of dentistry, pharmacy, home economics, business administration, etc. (While some ICUA cases would be useful, most deal primarily with presidents and deans at four-year liberal arts institutions.)

6. That regional associations, institutional consortia and statewide systems consider implementing similar types of regional training seminars for administrators within their geographic areas (including

workshops for department chairmen), utilizing the case study method.

7. That individual academic institutions, perhaps in cooperation with neighboring colleges or universities, take the initiative in conducting inservice professional development programs, with the assistance of the case study method, for their own administrative staff members and department chairmen.

8. That graduate schools of education, many of which are already doing much to prepare competent administrative leadership, consider both the development of administrative cases as part of their course work in higher education and the greater use of the case study method in their curriculum and teaching in the area of college and university administration.

9. That a national "training" seminar for conference, institute, and workshop program directors be planned in the near future to provide them with the opportunity to share ideas and experience, consider more effective teaching techniques (including the use of the case study method), and establish a basis for better coordination and cooperation in their respective national and regional administrative training programs.

10. That the Institute for College and University Administrators explore the feasibility of the greater use of various new supplementary simulation aids in conjunction with its case study discussions in an attempt to effect even more meaningful learning. (Such aids might include cassettes and video tapes that provide confrontation episodes, decision searches, and "gestalt" feedback; administrative "games" and psychodramas; or computer-assisted management information systems.)

11. That further empirical research be conducted on the effectiveness of the case study method of teaching college administration, and on the extent to which the effectiveness may be enhanced through the use of

supplementary simulation techniques. Such research would ideally investigate both attitudinal and behavioral change. (Even though the latter would probably be inconclusive, it could provide some valuable implications.)

12. And finally, that the Institute for College and University Administrators consider establishing a new dimension in its operating program that would help identify and encourage a greater flow of promising administrative talent into higher education. By sponsoring two-to-three-day orientation seminars designed around the case study method for potential academic administrators, promising faculty members who have been identified by their institutions could become acquainted with some of the realities, problems and opportunities of the administrative process and thus more knowledgeably decide whether they might wish to pursue an administrative career. Such a program, which might be dubbed "The Encouragement of New College Administrative Talent" (or "ENCAT"... all new programs must have an epithet!), could have a decided impact on meeting the nation's needs for additional administrative talent in the years just ahead, not to mention the opportunities it could provide for increasing the number of minorities, and particularly women, in responsible positions of administrative leadership in American higher education.

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APPENDIX A

INSTITUTIONS OFFERING GRADUATE COURSES IN THE STUDY OF HIGHER EDUCATION (N=112)*

ALABAMA
- Auburn University
- University of Alabama

ARIZONA
- Arizona State University
- University of Arizona

ARKANSAS
- University of Arkansas

CALIFORNIA
- Claremont Graduate School
- Stanford University
- University of California, Berkeley
- University of California, Los Angeles
- University of California, Santa Barbara
- University of the Pacific
- University of Southern California

COLORADO
- Colorado State College
- University of Colorado
- University of Denver

CONNECTICUT
- University of Connecticut

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA
- American University
- Catholic University of America
- George Washington University

FLORIDA
- Florida State Universtiy
- University of Florida
- University of Miami

GEORGIA
- Emory University
- University of Georgia

HAWAII
- University of Hawaii

IDAHO
- University of Idaho

ILLINOIS
- Illinois State University
- Loyola University
- Northern Illinois University
- Southern Illinois University
- University of Chicago
- University of Illinois, Urbana

INDIANA
- Ball State University
- Indiana University
- Purdue University
- University of Notre Dame

IOWA
- Iowa State University
- University of Iowa

KANSAS
- Kansas State University
- University of Kansas

KENTUCKY
- University of Kentucky

LOUISIANA
- Louisiana State University

MAINE
- University of Maine

MARYLAND
- Johns Hopkins University
- University of Maryland

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*Adapted from John C. Ewing (1963) and James F. Rogers (1969) and Updated With Available Current Information.

MASSACHUSETTS
- Boston College
- Boston University
- Harvard University

MICHIGAN
- Michigan State University
- University of Michigan
- Wayne State Universtiy
- Western Michigan University

MINNESOTA
- University of Minnesota

MISSISSIPPI
- University of Mississippi
- University of Southern Mississippi

MISSOURI
- Saint Louis University
- University of Missouri, Columbia
- University of Missouri, Kansas City
- Washington University

MONTANA
- Montana State University
- University of Montana

NEBRASKA
- University of Nebraska

NEW JERSEY
- Rutgers University

NEW MEXICO
- New Mexico State University
- University of New Mexico

NEW YORK
- Columbia University, Teachers College
- Cornell University
- New York University
- State University of New York, Albany
- State University of New York, Buffalo
- Syracuse University
- University of Rochester
- Yeshiva University

NORTH CAROLINA
- Duke University
- University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill

NORTH DAKOTA
- University of North Dakota

OHIO
- Bowling Green State University
- Case Western Reserve University
- Ohio State University
- Ohio University
- University of Toledo

OKLAHOMA
- Oklahoma State University
- University of Oklahoma

OREGON
- Oregon State University
- University of Oregon
- University of Portland

PENNSYLVANIA
- Duquesne University
- Lehigh University
- Pennsylvania State University
- Temple University
- University of Pennsylvania
- University of Pittsburgh

PUERTO RICO
- University of Puerto Rico

SOUTH DAKOTA
- University of South Dakota

TENNESSEE
- George Peabody College
- University of Tennessee

TEXAS
- Baylor University
- North Texas State University
- Texas Agricultural and Mechanical University
- Texas Tech University
- University of Houston
- University of Texas, Austin

UTAH
- Brigham Young University
- University of Utah
- Utah State University

VIRGINIA
- University of Virginia

WASHINGTON
- University of Washington
- Washington State University

WEST VIRGINIA
- West Virginia University

WISCONSIN
- Marquette University
- University of Wisconsin, Madison

WYOMING
- University of Wyoming

APPENDIX B

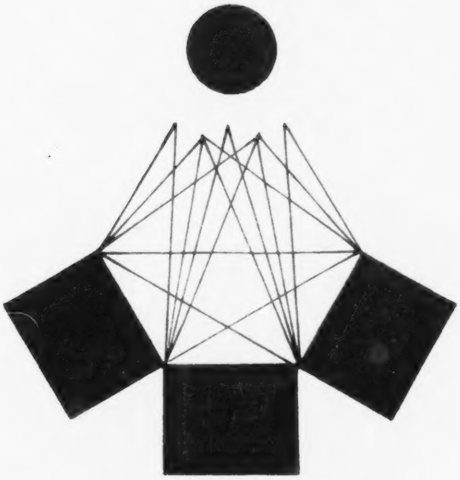
MAJOR SHORT-TERM NATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS for COLLEGE and UNIVERSITY ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS

PROGRAM TITLE	*SPONSOR*	*FREQUENCY*	*DURATION*	*LOCATION*	*NUMBER of PARTICIPANTS*	*PARTICIPANT QUALIFICATIONS*	*PROGRAM PURPOSE and DESCRIPTION*
PRESIDENTS INSTITUTE	Institute for College and University Administrators AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION One Dupont Circle Washington, D.C. 20036	Annually late June	Six Days	Varies	40 Each	Appointed to the position within recent years	Professional development programs for recently appointed administrators, covering the range of problems, current issues, and opportunities of academic leadership and administrative decision making. Programs include prominent speakers, seminars, the analysis of authentic case studies and small-group discussions.
ACADEMIC DEANS INSTITUTE		Several each year	Five Days Each				
BUSINESS OFFICERS INSTITUTE		Annually					
VARIOUS OTHER OCCASIONAL INSTITUTES and WORKSHOPS		Periodically	Two to Five Days		Varies	Varies	
ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION INTERNSHIP PROGRAM	AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION One Dupont Circle Washington, D.C. 20036	Annually	Nine Months	Various Campuses	30 to 40	30 to 40 years old, advanced degree, 2 years' teaching experience, nomination by home institution	A campus internship experience at both policy and operational levels under mentorship of a chief academic officer at a selected institution; includes two national seminars.
NEW PRESIDENTS SEMINAR	ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES 1818 R St., N.W. Washington, D.C. 20009	In conjunction with annual AAC meeting	Less Than One Day	At site of AAC Annual Meeting	Approximately 50	Appointed to the position within the previous year	A workshop to broaden the perceptions of the position and the resources available for effective performance.
NEW DEANS SEMINAR							
EXPERIENCED DEANS SEMINAR					Approx. 75		
SUMMER COUNCIL OF PRESIDENTS	AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF STATE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES One Dupont Circle Washington, D.C. 20036	Biennially ('73, '75, etc.) in summer	Five Days	Varies	Approximately 125	Presidents of member institutions of AASCU	A seminar to explore current problems in higher education as they relate to the president; includes small-group discussions.

PROGRAM TITLE	SPONSOR	FREQUENCY	DURATION	LOCATION	NUMBER of PARTICIPANTS	PARTICIPANT QUALIFICATIONS	PROGRAM PURPOSE and DESCRIPTION
SCHOOL FOR EXECUTIVES	AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION One Dupont Circle Washington, D.C. 20036	Biennially ('72,'74, etc.) in summer	Six Days	Varies	Approximately 500	Presidents, Deans, Dept. Chairmen, and Faculty of AACTE Member Colleges	A seminar to discuss current issues and mutual problems in teacher education; sessions oriented to a general theme.
CASC SUMMER INSTITUTES	COUNCIL FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SMALL COLLEGES One Dupont Circle Washington, D.C. 20036	Annually in Summer with Follow-up Workshops During Year	Five to Seven Days	Varies	250 to 300	Small-college Presidents, Other Administrators, and Faculty	Management-oriented seminars directed to presidents and their colleagues emphasizing leadership and administrative skills.
SUMMER WORKSHOP FOR GRADUATE DEANS	COUNCIL OF GRADUATE SCHOOLS IN THE U.S. One Dupont Circle Washington, D.C. 20036	Annually in summer	Five Days	Varies	50	Newly appointed to position	A workshop to discuss the problems of graduate school administration, current issues and new ideas; includes small-group discussions.
INSTITUTE ON COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION	CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF HIGHER EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104	Annually in June	One Week	University of Michigan	Approximately 60	College and University Administrators	An institute focusing on major themes and problems in higher education; includes seminars and group discussions.
A MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM FOR COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS	INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT 4 Brattle Street Cambridge, Mass. 02138	Annually in June-July	Six Weeks	Harvard Business School, Boston, Mass.	Approximately 120 (two sections)	College and University Administrators	A program of professional training covering educational administration, business management, and financial development, mainly through case study analysis.

PROGRAM TITLE	SPONSOR	FREQUENCY	DURATION	LOCATION	NUMBER of PARTICIPANTS	PARTICIPANT QUALIFICATIONS	PROGRAM PURPOSE and DESCRIPTION
MANAGEMENT AND PLANNING INSTITUTE FOR HIGHER EDUCATION	GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY New York, N.Y. 10027	Annually in March	Five Days	Arden House, Harriman, N.Y.	Varies	College and University Administrators	An institute on institutional strategy, planning, information systems, operations research, budgeting and governance.
MANAGEMENT COURSE FOR COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS	THE AMERICAN MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION Box 88 Hamilton, N.Y. 13346	About Three Times Yearly	Five Days	Varies	20 to 30	College and University Presidents	A short course on management principles and techniques as they apply to administrative decision making in the academic institution.
HIGHER EDUCATION PLANNING and MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS TRAINING SEMINARS	NATIONAL CENTER FOR MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS AT WICHE P.O. Drawer P Boulder, Colorado 80302	Periodically	Three Days	Varies	Varies	College and University Administrators	A seminar on planning and management systems for higher education and its potential applications for academic decision making.
"CAMPUS" SEMINARS IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT	SYSTEMS RESEARCH GROUP INC. 252 Bloor St. West Toronto 5, Ontario	Monthly	Three to Four Days	Toronto, Canada	Varies	College and University Administrators	A seminar on information, planning, and budgeting, utilizing operations research, information systems, and computer-assisted analysis.
SUMMER PROGRAMS FOR LEADERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION	NATIONAL TRAINING LABORATORIES INSTITUTE FOR THE APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES 1201 - 16th St., N.W. Washington, D.C. 20036	Several Sessions During Summer	Varies One to Three Weeks	Varies	Varies	Administrators, Faculty and Students in Higher Education	Experience-based learning laboratories directed toward personal growth, improvement of teaching and learning, organizational development, group dynamics, strategies of change, and applications of social science to campus problems.

APPENDIX C



Announcement of

1972-73 Sessions of the Institute for College and University Administrators

of the American Council on Education

1972–73
Institute Programs

INSTITUTE FOR ACADEMIC DEANS: November 5-10, 1972
Fordyce House, Saint Louis University
St. Louis, Missouri
(Application deadline: **September 1, 1972**)

INSTITUTE FOR ACADEMIC DEANS: March 25-30, 1973
(a coordinate program with the Business Officers Institute)
Sheraton Biloxi Motor Inn, Biloxi, Mississippi
(Application deadline: **January 15, 1973**)

INSTITUTE FOR BUSINESS OFFICERS: March 25-30, 1973
(a coordinate program with the Academic Deans Institute)
Sheraton Biloxi Motor Inn, Biloxi, Mississippi
(Application deadline: **January 15, 1973**)

THE 1973 PRESIDENTS INSTITUTE: June 24-30, 1973
(includes coordinate program for the presidents' wives)
Lake Placid Club House, Lake Placid, New York
(Application deadline: **March 15, 1973**)

INSTITUTE FOR ACADEMIC DEANS: July 22-27, 1973
Writers' Manor, Denver, Colorado
(Application deadline: **May 1, 1973**)

The Institute for College and University Administrators

The Institute for College and University Administrators was established in 1955 to provide professional development seminars on administrative decision making and academic leadership for recently appointed top-level officials in higher education. The first Presidents Institute was conducted in 1955; the first Academic Deans Institute, in 1958; and the first Chief Business Officers Institute, in 1967. Since 1955, over 2,400 administrators from more than 1,000 colleges and universities have participated in the Institute. Originally situated at the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, the Institute moved to Washington, D.C., in 1965 and became a part of the American Council on Education.

Institute Eligibility

Participation in each institute normally is limited to forty administrators. Application is open to those who have not previously attended the same institute. Preference is given to candidates who are fairly new in their positions. Participants are selected for each institute to represent a cross section of U.S. colleges and universities. Administrators in the following positions are eligible:

- PRESIDENTS INSTITUTE: President or Chancellor
- DEANS INSTITUTE: Academic Dean, Provost, Academic Vice-President, Dean of the College, Dean of the Faculty, or Dean of Instruction
- BUSINESS OFFICERS INSTITUTE: Business Officer, Financial Vice-President, Treasurer, others with broad fiscal responsibilities

The Programs

Each of the week-long institutes offers prominent speakers, seminars, case study sessions, and small group discussions. An informal atmosphere is maintained to encourage free and off-the-record discussion of basic concerns, current issues, and individual administrative problems. Topics to be covered on the 1972–73 programs include:

- academic goals and governance
- curriculum innovation and planned change
- student concerns and changing life styles
- personnel development and evaluation
- nonretention, tenure, and collective bargaining
- program planning and budgeting
- financing higher education
- legal issues in higher education
- governing board relationships

Leading educators and other authorities who have appeared on institute programs during the past year include . . . Norman Auburn . . . Howard Bowen . . . William Bowen . . . John Corson . . . Todd Furniss . . . Joseph Garbarino . . . Charles Gelatt . . . Samuel Gould . . . Roger Heyns . . . Harold Hodgkinson . . . Elmer Jagow . . . Morris Keeton . . . Max Lerner . . . Harry Marmion . . . Lewis Mayhew . . . Earl McGrath . . . Dean McHenry . . . William McHugh . . . John Meck . . . Maurice Mitchell . . . John Morse . . . Robert O'Neil . . . Donald Percy . . . Martha Peterson . . . Paul Reinert, S.J. . . . David Riesman . . . Paul Sharp . . . Sharvy Umbeck . . . Logan Wilson . . . Max Wise.

Recent Participants

Participating presidents, vice-presidents, academic deans, and financial officers have come from all sectors of higher education. Among the institutions represented during the 1971–72 sessions were:

Barnard College
Colby College
Creighton University
Cuyahoga Community College
Florida A & M University
Kalamazoo College
Miami-Dade Junior College
Mississippi Valley State College
Morehouse College
New College
Northwestern University
Ohio University
Paul Quinn College
Purdue University
Reed College
Ripon College
Russell Sage College
St. Augustine's College
St. John's University
St. Mary's University
St. Norbert College
San Jose State College
Seattle University
Seton Hall University
Temple University
Texas Southern University
University of Denver
University of Guam
University of Maryland
University of the Pacific
University of Southern California
University of Vermont
Whittier College
Worcester Junior College

Recent participants have offered such comments as the following on the value of the 1971–72 programs:

. . . an exceptionally effective and beneficial program . . . instructive, exciting, and memorable . . . a most worthwhile experience . . . informative and thought-provoking . . . gave me insights and new ideas . . . provided a sense of perspective and commonality . . . learned more about the intricacies of human relationships in the academic world . . . increased my sensitivity to new areas . . . can now look at my own situation more knowledgeably and objectively . . . gained more confidence in myself and my role . . . words will never express the benefits that I derived . . . higher education will be greatly enlightened as the result of these institutes!

Expenses and Arrangements

The 1972–73 program fees are as follow:

- ACADEMIC DEANS and BUSINESS OFFICERS INSTITUTES	$500
- PRESIDENTS INSTITUTE (which includes the program for Presidents' wives)	$800

Normally these fees and the participant's travel and living expenses are paid by his institution.

Lodging, group dining, and meeting sessions are all at the respective conference facilities. In addition to the program fee, room and meal costs are expected to range from $26 to $34 per day for those with single rooms and from $22 to $28 per person per day for those with twin or double accommodations.

Applicants from institutions with restricted travel and related expense funds may apply for financial aid to meet a portion of their expenses by explaining the circumstances on their application forms. Limited fellowship assistance has been made possible by a grant from the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation.

Registration for each institute is from 4:00 to 5:00 p.m. on the respective Sunday, followed by a reception, dinner, and a brief program. The Deans and Business Officers Institutes adjourn at noon on the following Friday; the Presidents Institute, at noon on the following Saturday.

Application Deadlines

Application should be made on the enclosed form in time to be *received* by the Institute for College and University Administrators *no later than the respective application deadlines* (noted inside front leaf). All candidates will be notified of their status within two weeks after the application deadline.

Advisory Committee

Chairman
JOHN J. PRUIS
President
Ball State University

ERNEST L. BOYER
Chancellor
State University of New York

RHODA M. DORSEY
Dean and Vice President
Goucher College

PHILIP G. HOFFMAN
President
University of Houston

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Hiram College

ELLIS E. McCUNE
President
California State College,
Hayward

REVEREND
J. BARRY McGANNON, S.J.
Dean, College of Arts
and Sciences
Saint Louis University

EARL J. McGRATH
Director, Higher Education
Center
Temple University

JAMES C. OLSON
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University of Missouri at
Kansas City

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President
Alcorn A & M College

MARWIN WROLSTAD
Vice President for Business
Affairs and Treasurer
Lawrence University

Ex Officio
ROGER W. HEYNS
President
American Council on Education

Institute Staff

EVAN R. COLLINS, *Director*
CHARLES F. FISHER, *Program Director*
ISABEL COLL-PARDO, *Administrative Assistant*

APPENDIX D

PROGRAM SCHEDULE: INSTITUTE FOR ACADEMIC DEANS

Center for Continuing Education, The University of Chicago
October 31 - November 5, 1971

SUNDAY, October 31

4:00 - 5:00 p.m.	Registration - Second Floor Lobby-West
5:30 p.m.	Reception and Dinner
7:30 p.m.	Welcome and Program Introduction...*Fisher, Collins* Greetings from the University of Chicago...*Wilson*

MONDAY, November 1

9:00 - 10:00 a.m.	Get Acquainted Session...*Fisher*
10:20 - 12 Noon	Case Study: Pennwood College...*Sharp*
12:15 p.m.	Luncheon
1:30 - 2:50 p.m.	Case Study: Wilson University...*Collins*
3:10 - 4:30 p.m.	Seminar: Program Planning and Budgeting...*Clodius*
7:30 - 9:00 p.m.	Seminar: A President's View of Academic Management ...*Jagow*

TUESDAY, November 2

9:00 - 10:20 a.m.	Case Study: Seneca University...*Sharp*
10:40 - 12 Noon	Seminar: Organizational Development and Change ...*Demerath*
12:15 p.m.	Luncheon
1:30 - 2:50 p.m.	Seminar: Faculty Collective Bargaining...*McHugh*
3:10 - 4:30 p.m.	Small-Group Discussions (by problem area)
6:15 p.m.	Dinner
7:30 - 8:50 p.m.	Case Study: Halcyon University...*Marmion*

WEDNESDAY, November 3

9:00 - 10:30 a.m.	Group A-- Case Study: Piedmont University...*Collins* Group B-- Seminar: Higher Education for Everybody Is Not Enough...*Fisher*
10:45 - 12:15 p.m.	Group A-- Case Study: Sheffield College...*Fisher* Group B-- Case Study: Piedmont University...*Collins*

AFTERNOON and EVENING FREE

THURSDAY, November 4

9:00 - 10:20 a.m.	Case Study: Medfield University...*Marmion*
10:40 - 12 Noon	Seminar: Faculty and Departmental Development ...*Furniss*
12:15 p.m.	Luncheon
1:30 - 2:50 p.m.	Small-Group Discussions (by problem area)
3:10 - 4:30 p.m.	Small-Group Discussions (by type and size of institution)
5:30 p.m.	Social Hour and Dinner
7:30 p.m.	Speaker - The Malcolm X Experience...*Hurst*

FRIDAY, November 5

9:00 - 10:30 a.m.	Seminar: The Changing Role of the Academic Dean ...*Keeton*
10:50 - 12 Noon	Open Discussion: The Academic Deanship...*Collins, Fisher, Miller*

THE INSTITUTE FOR ACADEMIC DEANS

The University of Chicago, October 31 - November 5, 1971

Discussion Leaders, Speakers and Staff

ROBERT L. CLODIUS, Project Administrator, Midwest Universities Consortium, and University Professor, University of Wisconsin; former Vice President, University of Wisconsin.

EVAN R. COLLINS, Director, Institute for College and University Administrators, A.C.E., and Professor of Higher Education, Boston College; former President, State University of New York at Albany.

NICHOLAS J. DEMERATH, Professor and former Chairman, Department of Sociology, Washington University; author of Power, Presidents, and Professor: Studies of University Administration.

CHARLES F. FISHER, Program Director, Institute for College and University Administrators, A.C.E.; former Assistant to the President, Lawrence University, and Assistant Director, A.C.E. Internship Program.

W. TODD FURNISS, Director, Commission on Academic Affairs, A.C.E.; former Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences, University of Hawaii.

CHARLES G. HURST, JR., President, Malcolm X College; former Professor and Chairman, Department of Speech, Howard University; author of Learning Problems of Black Youth.

ELMER JAGOW, President, Hiram College; former Financial Vice President and Treasurer, Knox College.

MORRIS T. KEETON, Academic Vice President, Antioch College, and President, American Association for Higher Education; author of Shared Authority on Campus.

WILLIAM F. McHUGH, Special Counsel for Employment Relations, State University of New York, and Co-Chairman, Committee on Labor Relations, National Association of College and University Attorneys.

HARRY A. MARMION, President, St. Xavier College; former Director, Institute for College and University Administrators, Professor, Coast Guard Academy, and administrator at Moorhead State College.

RICHARD I. MILLER, Dean of the College and Vice President for Academic Affairs, Baldwin-Wallace College; former Professor of Education and Department Chairman, University of Kentucky.

PAUL F. SHARP, President, University of Oklahoma; former President of Hiram College, Chancellor of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, and President of Drake University.

JOHN T. WILSON, Provost, University of Chicago; former Dean of Faculties and Vice President, University of Chicago.

APPENDIX E

POSITION PAPER*

Higher Education for Everybody Is Not Enough

HOW SHOULD COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES RESPOND TO DEMANDS FOR higher education for everybody?

It is part of the psychology of the academic mind to recoil from rapid change, innovative uses of technology, or radical departures from time-tested traditions. Confronted with persuasive evidence that there is something deeply wrong with the practice of the scholarly professions, or that our academic institutions are teetering on the brink, shaken by bona fide crisis, we are inclined to appoint some new committees or—with great hesitancy and misgiving—to reach for the scotch tape.

Our country was prepared for today's campus disruptions in the period of 1776 to 1787. Although the mind of a Thomas Jefferson was anchored in Heidelberg, Oxford, Paris, Bologna, Rome, Greece, the early Christians, and the ancient Hebrews, minds like his transformed the old into something quite new, as in the case of his proposal for a university in Virginia. What was created then was not, of course, the latest thing. Nor was it necessarily the truth. But it was an adventure, a genuine new departure, unlike most of the institutions for learning we have created in this country since the Morrill Act—that is, most of our higher education establishment. A similar revolution is needed today to meet demands for appropriate educational opportunity for everyone.

The traditions of the university in the West (at least outside the Latin world) are anti- if not counter-revolutionary. Operating within these traditions the university has produced revolutionary knowledge, but, institutionally, the uses of the knowledge have been directed mainly toward the confirmation of the status quo, particularly the political and cultural status quo.

But in principle the main themes of our society run counter to this deployment of knowledge. In spite of Vietnam, poverty, racism, and the overbearing logic of our technology, the main themes of our country, in principle, were and still are revolutionary. The cutting edges of these themes are what people think, their thoughts as preludes to their conduct. They are reflected in such questions as these: Can the revolutionary knowledge developed in universities be used humanely, to confirm what Jefferson and his colleagues apparently meant? What does equality mean, and whatever it meant, can we still achieve a version of it consistent with this adventure? Are reason and democracy really consistent? Is war in behalf of peace, given what we know now, realistic? If the Negroes were property, can the blacks suddenly really be people? Are some genocides more decent than others, some cesspools more fragrant than others?

The themes of peace, integration, equality, freedom, and the humane use of knowledge are ones which, traditionally, fall beyond the purview of the university. The university tradition has been one of war between itself and the society which sustained it. The university has always been a primary instrument for segregating and honoring inequality among people. The university has championed freedom for some, but not for all. About the uses of knowledge, the university has claimed to be apolitical and above all that. Its success as a producer of revolutionary knowledge is based on traditions and needs which are not entirely or necessarily compatible with the traditions and needs of America's revolutionary main themes.

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Furthermore, in dealing with these problems and tensions, the state of our knowledge does not operate with consummate neutrality. The knowledge tends to take sides—different sides—depending on what the issue is. The technology has a logic of its own, usually disrespectful of our partisan political biases. For black men and poor people, the science tends to repudiate what the Caucasians and the privileged have been telling them politically for a long time. Our learning institutions, the way they are organized and operate, do not always follow the logic of the revolutionary knowledge they themselves have produced. Our own success as knowledge-producers too often leads to unfriendly conclusions about our own prejudices, about time in terms of humans, about how people learn in those very institutions in which we have the greatest vested interest. Too often lately, if we really honored what we think, we would undercut our own status and privilege.

Counterposing the academic traditions against America's revolutionary main themes creates considerable tension. On the campuses, this tension is bound to get worse because the themes are reaching a unique period of maturity. It is a rare time, peculiarly rigged to repudiate everything 1776–87 meant, or to add a whole new dimension of proof in behalf of its meaning.

Quite often those who have the greatest power to produce change have the greatest reason to resist change. They often, it might also be added, are psychologically least prepared to endure the consequences of change, are most shocked by it. Yet, at this juncture in the country's course, a failure to change could be the most damaging to those most capable of producing it. This is the paradox those of us in charge of higher education in America now face. But we should work for change, because we have helped to produce the paradox notwithstanding our proclamations that our institutions (and we) are innocent victims of horrendous external forces for which we cannot be held responsible, that we are the nuts caught helplessly in the jaws of some giant abstract cracker.

If we are to succeed, we must understand the part our attitudes, and therefore our institutions, are playing in providing inadequate institutional models for a revolutionary society, in perpetuating class and racial divisions, in institutionalizing inappropriate segregation by age and place, and in fostering dependence rather than independence in our students. And we must learn to look in new ways at the uses of time in education, at the places where learning goes on, and at the nature of what is to be learned.

If this paper seems quixotic, it is not because it argues for a major overhaul of our institutions. It is because it assumes we can exert some control over our own attitudes, and that we will.

The Politics of Age and Change

> *My three children are thirteen, sixteen, and eighteen years old. Like me, they are not very old. (But I may not be young enough.)*
>
> *The GI bill paid for my "higher" education. My professional career began during the Age of McCarthy (Joseph) and the Korean War. I have worked almost everywhere in the university—teacher and administrator, board member and parent, from adult to graduate education, from the urban to the international field, in public and private institutions, large and small. Wherever I have worked, there have always been too many students and not enough money, threats to academic freedom and assaults upon faculty democracy, excessive teaching loads and inadequate parking space. In other words, each institution at which I have worked has been innovative, experimental, creative, and absolutely great.*

There was a watershed in the state-of-our-greatness between the war against Hitler and the war to make Vietnam free. There was an abrupt change in what we know, what we are capable of knowing, and how we live. It was a mere second of history, but what a time—a time for wallowing in the mud and soaring into the sky, for the worst of all genocides and for walking on the moon. It was a watershed between not being very old and possibly not being young enough.

Between wars, human population reached a critical size and more than half of mankind moved into the cities. The machinery of our civilization changed. The computers changed irrevocably the life of our minds. The sun set on several empires, and the old colonialism died. Caucasians discovered that they were far less than half of the whole. A new art, a new music, and a literature appeared. A new power to understand ourselves emerged, shaking the foundations of all the understandings we had.

> *My friend, the professor on the Graduate Faculty at the New School for Social Research, said: "They disrespect history. They are not interested. The Greeks mean nothing to them, or Jefferson or*

Lincoln. They don't want to know." My friend in the Black Student Union said: "They say their history is a science. It is an art—their art. They are painting their own pictures. They made Western Civilization a required course, but even their electives are not true. They are free to teach untruths."

The questions my children ask do not seem to give a proper weight to who I am and where I have been, to my rank, serial number, and possessions.

These students at the college act as if they are the first generation to understand the impact of what has happened. There is so much they don't know. But their questions are embarrassing. Their questions disrupt what I mean. Our answers have disrupted their lives. We are disrupted, together—the traditions, the history. The continuity is broken. The campus community is built on the solid ground of the mutuality of our disruption.

They obtained the master-key to the campus and took over my office at seven in the morning. Eventually they gave my office back, and we've changed all the locks. Possession of it didn't help them. What they came for wasn't there. My office, on the second floor of the new building, is eight centuries old. It is always locked up by what I represent, so even though they took it over, they didn't get what they wanted.

How do you occupy one hundred and twenty credit hours, tenured by the ranks, paid according to the AA schedule of the AAUP, divided into two thousand fifty-minute class periods, and entombed in a million books hidden away in guarded stacks? It's bigger than being black or being bombed. It's bigger than being educated.

They asked: If it's a Community of Scholars, where is the community? (Refer them to the schedule of office hours posted on the department chairman's door.)

They asked: If it's Freedom and Democracy, where is the due process? (Issue them a copy of the union contract and ban them from the faculty meetings.)

They asked: If it's Equal Access, how come the gates are locked? (Show them the range of their SAT performance, and hand them the press release announcing the expanded scholarship program for the culturally deprived.)

They asked: If it's Integrated, why is it all so segregated? (Give

> *them an organizational chart of the departments, and explain the Scientific Method to them.)*
>
> *They asked: If it's the City of the Mind, what are the walls for, and the gate? (We are locked in, we say, in order to be free. Academically free. The ghetto is free, but beyond the walls there is tyranny.)*

Inscribed over the gates to the stockade at Ft. Dix are the words: "Obedience to the Law Is Freedom." Over the gates to the campus, what shall we write? "We Know Better"? Meantime, whatever we write, everybody knows that there *is* a continuity and a tradition. It is in the Constitution, in the library, and in Vietnam, and if you can't find it in the final examination, the acid will show it to you.

We want to be left alone. The change we want the most is to be left alone. If we want to be left alone, we'd better talk the language of change. On the one hand, we are above and beyond the politics of this time. Above all else the university must not become politicalized. On the other hand we are captives of our ideology—the ideology of being left alone. In the pursuit of being left alone, we reveal that we have always been politicized, have always engaged in an internal struggle for power among ourselves and in a power contest between ourselves and the rest of the world—the basis for our privilege, what we profess, our profession. Called upon to defend ourselves now, our two hands thrash the air wildly. That is, we talk the language of change under duress.

Having been politicized for eight centuries or more, this is not the issue. Who shall get in is a *political* question, and who shall get out—"educated"—is too. The curriculum is a treaty between an oversupply of knowledge and an undersupply of time, a contract of value-laden choices, clauses *politically* charged. Getting the money and dividing it up, spending it is a *political* process. Teaching loads, being functions of the money supply and class sizes, are *political* conclusions. Black studies, two-year colleges, injunctions and the police, sit-ins and march-outs, the supply of heroin, Fourth of July speeches about due process and procedural democracy, ROTC and the defense contracts, honors programs and the conversion of the freshman year into a giant remediation department—all are planks in the platforms of our *political* parties.

The issue is whether an old politics is to be sustained or the university's campaign to be reframed comes within terms of a new politics. Reform means a redistribution of credit hours and of the budget, of who does what when. Reform means a redistribution of the decision-making power and of the rewards and punishments. The object of a structure is strength. Restructuring means dividing up strength differently.

Those who represent the status quo in American higher education draw a tenuous line between the possibility for reform and the promotion of revolution, of violence and disorder. There are students, some of the best, who cross this line often, back and forth, tentatively, exploring. Let us give credit where credit is due. Our lobbies in Washington and on the campuses are not completely without their purposes. Our students have found them out. Whatever else they may say about us, we have taught our pupils well. Above all else the teacher is a model of the older for the younger. Having already experimented with the strike, our students may soon discover their own unions. We meant them to be professionals all along, like us. Soon, we will get used to the idea that they've simply jumped the gun a bit. But, meantime, it is a bit awkward.

THE AGE OF JOBS AND POLITICS

If we are to continue to call these things "colleges," we must respect the distinction between training and education. To train them well, all we need do is dish the knowledge out to them more efficiently. Education is evaluative. It is the capacity to evaluate the knowledge, to evaluate having possession of it and the uses of it.

The most crucial educational problem in modern technical civilization is how to prevent the separation of technical power from moral responsibility. This is a problem of values, and it impregnates the most objective pursuit of truth, the purest of research endeavors.

> *He came to us from a high school serving Bedford Stuyvesant which somehow had neglected in all that time (during which he did not drop out) to teach him how to read and write or to handle numbers successfully. He arrived angry and afraid, knowing he was "deficient." And being part of the 10 percent with black skins, he was under the impression he was "different." Naturally we reassured him that we could fix him up—if he would but cooperate—in sixty credit hours, give or take; in two years, more or less; in twenty courses (plus the remedial preparation). After Electronics I, II, III, and IV, and Drafting, and Fundamentals Theory, after Machines Laboratory I, II, III, and IV, and Industrial Electronics Theory, and Selected Topics in Electrical Technology, after the required American history course and the freshman English sequence, I and II, he chose, for his one remaining elective, to take a course in sociology. And after we handed him his union card and offered to help him get his first job, he said: "Black is beautiful and this college is racist, and Vietnam, I, II, III, and IV is whitey's bag—not mine."*

The assumption that the sciences and technologies are ever-changing and value free and that the humanities and social sciences are conceived in fixed, unchanging principles containing the absolute truths of our culture is as dangerous as the assumption that learning for vocation and learning for its own sake are mutually exclusive.

Academic prejudice notwithstanding, learning for its own sake and learning for vocation have coexisted in the university almost from the beginning. The more sophisticated and complex the work to be done, the more sophisticated and prolonged the preparatory education required. European countries have long recognized these relationships through tightly differentiated national educational systems. Many of these countries test their young at an early age, grouping them into various categories of potential talent and competence, channeling them into hierarchal institutional systems. In the service of national manpower projections, the educational systems in these countries predetermine the life-opportunities of the clientele, usually confirming class distinctions deeply embedded in their histories.

Academic elitism has always been tied to popular versions of what the classiest professions were and who was to be allowed access to them. This was true in the medieval university, which was devoted to job training for future governors, clergymen, physicians, and landed aristocrats. The Morrill Act was a uniquely American departure from this tradition, but in the twentieth century, though elitist Harvard itself came to reflect the impact of the land-grant legislation, the land-grant universities came to aspire more and more to elitist Harvard's image of what a European university ought to be in America.

The difficulty the sciences had getting into the prestigious European universities had nothing to do with status distinctions between pure and applied research. The pursuit of the sciences—pure and applied—required getting hands dirty, and this is what the elitist prejudice resisted. It was assumed that those who got into the university naturally would control the levers of power once they got out. This assumption encouraged the academic mystique that action could be reserved until later life. Learning, allegedly, was clean and perfumed, utterly contemplative, like an afternoon of a country squire. The wall around Oxford's superblock not only separated those who society thought "qualified" for the "higher learning" from those who apparently were not, but also separated the privilege of thinking (evaluating) from the responsibility for acting. This illiberal prejudice persists in contemporary liberal education and throughout the national educational structure. It is built into our admissions standards, into the class aspirations we have for those we have traditionally "educated," in contrast with those we have traditionally ignored. It is the difference between Oberlin and the New York City Community College, between Yale and South Dakota State University.

From the point of prestige and status—class—the segregation of learning for a vocation from learning for its own sake is always paralleled by a segregation of thinking from acting, of "scholarship" from activism. ***A differentiated educational system tends to project the class prejudices of the society creating it into the educational institutions serving that society.***

> *"The 'natural aristocracy' pronouncements of Vice-President Agnew, together with President Nixon's emphasis, in his message on higher education of March 19, 1970, on vocational training at the expense of greater black participation in higher education strongly indicate that the administration views the community college as a ceiling for Black educational achievement. We strongly disagree with that view of our role in America's higher education." (Statement by black junior college leaders, six college presidents and one provost, May 26, 1970.)*

The California version of a differentiated educational system has not only been widely copied throughout the country, but is also now being built into national policy. This version projects the problems of class into the nation's educational system. The adaptation of this model in Vice-President Agnew's home state illustrates what the projection of these problems into the higher educational system can mean. The University of Maryland is a giant into which the "most qualified" of the state's youth may be admitted. It has recently launched a new satellite four-year campus in white, middle-class suburbia. On its main campus black enrollment is 2.5 percent. Undergirding the university is a system of six state colleges, three of which are essentially all-black and three of which are almost all-white, that is, equal access. Beneath these are twelve public two-year schools, all but one of which cater to enrollments which in no way reflect the racial composition of the state. Throughout this system, categories of SAT scores are properly arranged according to the special mission of each part. (Of course, the values of the meritocracy allow for the most "talented" to escape from the lower echelons into the higher, even though denied direct access at the outset.)

Upon such differentiation the conservative and the liberal agree. The conservative says: maintain the standards. Keep the mission of the university pure. It is because our present notions of quality undergird the privileges of the status quo, that the conservative is for maintaining the standards. He is for putting a good part of American youth directly into jobs right after high school, or guiding them into vocationally or technology-oriented two-year colleges and calling it equal access. The liberal says: The new masses must be allowed in. What he means is: the politics and economics of the new urban America require a massive extension of the educational opportunity beyond the twelfth grade. He is for building hundreds of new two-year colleges, hoping to make the new masses employable—and calling it the democratization of the higher educational opportunity.

American society being what it is now, the projection of class is a projection of race into our higher educational system. To each his own, and something for everybody. The third proposition of the California-Maryland syllogism is: Something is better than nothing—a proposition that summarizes the progress of the blacks in America since the *Brown* case, and the progress of higher education since Berkeley.

Segregation According to Time and Place

The American educational system is divided increasingly into separate and distinct ghettos—elementary, junior, and secondary schools, junior and senior colleges, graduate and professional schools. We have dropped an iron curtain at the age of eighteen between the monopolistic jurisdictions of lower and higher education. Not only are the students more and more alienated from the educational systems through which they are processed, but the various bureaucratic parts of these systems are conducted more and more apart from each other. The age eighteen has no special significance in terms of the biological development of the human and his capacity to learn. For youth growing up in the contemporary city, reaching the age of eighteen has virtually no significance except artificially as a political boundary between the two institutionalized educational monopoly systems.

Each part of the educational system is based on a separate physical island, segregating levels of learners, students and faculties, the younger and older, teaching and research, learning and working, thinking and acting, from each other, constantly foreshortening the time in which any particular group of people may associate with each other in a common learning endeavor. Around each geographic and temporal educational ghetto, we repair and fortify those walls segregating campus from community, academic professional from nonacademic talent, and the acts of learning to think from the rich urban opportunities for thoughtful action.

At the collegiate level, during the period in which we have used the four academic years, each of nine months, paced relentlessly by the credit hour system, mankind has enjoyed his most phenomenal knowledge growth. What we now try to fit into this obsolete system just doesn't fit any longer. It can't be done—not in a time of the atom, the moon walk, TV, pot, the pill, the rise of non-Caucasians, and the fantastic growth of knowledge. We cannot keep Humpty-Dumpty together with bureaucratic panaceas which ignore the incredible gap between what we *may* know and the archaic institutional forms we have always used to help people know.

With the students coming into the higher system with high school diplomas that reflect their attaining the least success in a failing secondary system, the least prior education in the subjects vital to the conduct of free men—with these students we are doing the least. To these young Americans acutely concerned about social justice and being free, we respond with a narrow, uptight, incomplete, and ultimately dishonest version of the beauty of knowledge, the sanctity of the opportunity to learn, the intricacy and delicacy of probing the human mind and heart.

Finally, the educational ghettos are a tragic retreat from the idea of the college as a community at a time when one of the deepest longings in the hearts of the young is for a community. We move students around like pawns on a chess board, through bits and pieces of academic time and space, conceiving their learning-lives in the false and brittle terms of the bureaucratic conceptions of our educational institutions.

TIME AND PLACE ACCORDING TO STATUS

The idea of the campus as a *community* (of scholars or of anything else) has deteriorated; in some places, it is near collapse. Communities are governed. (Corporations are managed.) Some governmental functions require management, but the critical issues of government are different from those of management. They concern the qualifications for citizenship, the rights and duties of the citizens, and the processes regulating relationships among the citizens and between them and their government. Corporate managerial techniques are replacing principles of government on the campus. But university management is talked about as if it is government. The result is a confusion in structure and of purpose, the perpetuation of an old politics based on hierarchy and segregation, usually resulting in corrupt government unrelieved by efficient management.

Freedom remains one of the central themes about which the academic "community" talks. "Academic freedom" is the banner flown by those who teach. According to the myths, "being free" is essential to teaching but not to learning. Those who are taught *are being prepared* to be free, presumably at some later date. The discipline of freedom, like that of baseball, must at some time be practiced in order to be mastered. A part of the preparation for life in a free society is the mastery of the terms of freedom while one learns, in relationship to the acquisition of knowledge. In other words, the experience of freedom is essential for learning, both for those who teach *and* for those who are taught.

Within the frame of the academic corporation, new constitutions for government are being negotiated everywhere among teacher-employees, student-consumers, and the university managers. Each of these interest blocs brings a different political slogan to the negotiating table. The employees—often liberals in the political world, opposed to the Vietnam war, racism, and Spiro Agnew—are for faculty democracy. The consumers—even the moderate majority who basically want to do good without a disturbance of their routines for consumption—are for participatory democracy. Management—having generally forsaken the possibility of leading the corporation anywhere different from where it is—is for keeping the production going, keeping things cool. Under the tense circumstances of our time, making decisions tends to heat things up; no decision seems possible without alienating some substantial part of some constituency. Consequently, management generally avoids making fundamental decisions in order to keep things cool, or, when compelled to decide something, tries to decide in a manner not readily apparent to those most affected by the decisions, that is, undemocratically. Unfortunately, not making decisions has the tendency to heat things up now as much as making decisions does. Implicitly, among the three basic constituencies, quite in addition to the external relationships of the whole, there are genuine and far-reaching conflicts of interest.

The push for greater democracy (a political concept) within the framework of the academic corporation is increasingly harnessed to the pursuit of the conflicting self-interests (not always political) of the employees, the consumers, and the managers. This push is relatively new in contemporary academic life. And it is complicated because the pushers are also teachers, students, and administrative colleagues, maintaining that they are really citizens, associated in a community devoted to learning, eager to govern and to be governed justly. Labor-management relationships in America assume a hierarchal organization for production purposes and adopt confrontation politics for the resolution of conflicting interests. The high purposes of the university, on the other hand, assume a community organization in which freedom is honored, justice pursued, and reason cherished.

The thrust toward greater democracy on the campus, ignoring the deterioration of the "community" and its extensive transformation into the managerial-corporate format, encourages the resolution of freedom, justice, and reason problems through confrontation politics. What we have here is the extension of labor-management techniques to new realms of political and educational relationships and the substitution of these techniques for the principles of government. This substitution has the effect of converting the role of the leader from change-maker to mediator, of transferring the initiative for change from executive leadership to more or less leaderless constituencies pursuing self-interest. To the extent that such groups successfully pursue self-interest and obtain superior privilege, their defense of the status quo achieves priority over their impulse for change.

Unfortunately, the increasingly hierarchal and segregated structure of the national educational establishment injects the nation's class and race stratifications into the campus confrontations. Consequently, the freedom, justice, and reason issues on the campus almost always now involve class and race tensions. Moreover, although advocacy and confrontation are at the very core of Anglo-American systems for the determination and administration of justice, American education at all levels has kept the country's youth virtually illiterate about the techniques and skills of advocacy. Compelled to become a part of the confrontation political system, they have approached their problems with a meat axe instead of with a scalpel. This accounts for the low qualitative level of the disruptions, for the ineffectiveness of the student movement.

To this explosive situation the university brings a medieval conception of community government, traditions contrary to the democratic ethic and to modern notions of a representative, parliamentary disposition of community power. The medieval tradition champions a hierarchal arrangement of power on the basis of class and generally dishonors the principle of a separation of judicial, legislative, and executive prerogatives. The tradition, naturally, is feudal. And in a feudal sense, the contemporary college president (the chief executive) often finds himself acting like a supreme court judge in the ultimate stages of what passes for faculty or student due process; faculties increasingly find themselves sucked into or seeking executive powers, the power to execute and administer the laws they rightfully may enact affecting curriculum, personnel, budget, and so on; and the students, generally excluded as a class from the important executive, legislative, or judicial powers, are usually compelled to express their fondness for the democratic process through street action, trespass, or the ultimate device of the labor union, the strike.

The essence of the feudal tradition is status—the powers of each citizen fixed in time and place—the certainty of knowing where each person fits. The spirit of our time is the opposite. It is a time of uncertainty, a craving for equality, a disrespect for status, a special penchant for mobility. Never before has the quality of the *substance* of change been linked so solidly to the quality of the *processes* for change. With our educational institutions as with the individual learner, the cultivation of the capacity to think is related in a new and intimate way to the quality of action-opportunity. Curricular reform depends sensitively now upon renewal of the academic community. And this renewal requires a reconsideration, in light of our academic purposes, of the way power is matched to responsibility so that we may restore some accountability for the possession and use of power in the university.

GHETTO DEMOLITION

The technology economy (anticolonial, consumer-oriented, urban, and overpopulated) presents two profoundly complicated and urgent challenges: (1) Given the growing shortage of resources, how to increase efficiency; and (2) How to *control* increasingly complex technology systems. These challenges obsess educational production in our country.

These are not now the obsessions of the brightest and the most concerned among the young in our high schools and colleges. They seem to be more concerned about how to operate and perfect a complex civilization, not merely for the sake of efficiency, but in behalf of being human in spite of the technology's ever-pressing demands for greater efficiency and more extensive control. Woodstock, the peace movement, the reactions to the campus killings, the use of narcotics, and the thrust for student power underscore deepening misunderstandings between those in charge of young America and those they are in charge of.

Hitler once told the German people (and those in charge of his universities) that if they would but leave the economic, political, and diplomatic decision-making power to him, they would receive in return their greatest support for the promotion of science and technology. In the short-run, the sciences—university-based—flourished under Hitler, and his regime, once under way, was not marked by significant unemployment problems. For a while many German teachers and students bought Hitler's package. Our students aren't in that marketplace now.

Education, by its very nature, is disruptive. Both the subject matter of education and the outlook of the humans to be educated mainly reflect the past. Very little that we teach in the university concerns the future or is future-oriented. We have many departments of history, but no departments of the future. And our students, arriving at the old age of eighteen, are usually consummate confirmations of the value systems represented by their parents, the communities in which they grew up, their churches. To disrupt what they believe, what they think they know for sure, is a herculean task too seldom undertaken with success.

The past is not to be condemned either because it is history or because it is old. At best the past is but a preparation for the future. To change anything, we must first know what there is to be changed. *Why* in order to know *how*. The danger of coming to know the past too well is that one can easily become overawed by it. When this happens (as it does all too often) evaluation stops and simple knowledge transfer becomes the end-all.

One of the principal advantages of being powerful, rather than powerless, is the privilege of defining who the disrupters are and what the disruption is. Knowing all the time that education is by its nature disruptive, we have defined disruption so that it is a dirty word. Confronted by students complaining about our miseducational conduct, we respond that *they* are the real disrupters. Instead of concentrating on the quality of our own disruption, we have taken steps to make sure that the performance of our students will be qualitatively inferior. Instead of coming to grips with the overbearing consensus, uniformity, and standardization of almost every dimension of the country's life—its mass media, its products, its schools and campuses, its political parties and options—we have moved aggressively to repress the clumsy and ineffective dissenters for whose clumsiness and ineffectiveness we are also responsible.

We have the obligation now to move aggressively toward improving the quality of the disruption.

Time

Time, more than ever, is of the essence in the educational process—not because there is so little of it, but because our uptight approach to it has led to the misuse of what there is. We have exalted institutional versions of time and of excellence at the expense of honoring the realities of human time and the excellence of individual people. Heretofore the burden of proof has been on the individual to persuade the institution to let him in. Institutional admission criteria have been used to keep people out in defense of abstract institutional standards of excellence. The burden of proof has shifted to the institution to convince society why individuals or classes should be kept out. This shift is the meaning of the extension of universal education beyond grade twelve. With the diminution of the importance of abstract quality judgments at the point of admission, the emphasis will naturally shift to the point of *exit* for the measurement of quality performance. Instead of the institutional assertion of excellence on the basis of who is kept out at the beginning, worth will have to be proved in accordance with the results produced at the end. Now the institutions will be compelled to demonstrate their quality through what happens between admission and graduation. This proof cannot possibly be made simply on the basis of standardized examinations. It can only be made on the basis of how well individuals realize over time a variety of human talents combined differently in each case.

Quality performance in education necessarily will become (as it should) a much more subjective matter.

Therefore, more attention will have to be given to the facts of human biological development as these bear upon unfolding learning capacities. In the case of young people growing up in cities, this undoubtedly means that the ages nine or ten through thirteen or fourteen are far more critical than age eighteen. And with the national extension of the franchise to eighteen-year-old citizens, that age, for some purposes, will become more critical than age twenty-one. The political-bureaucratic line we have drawn at eighteen between secondary and higher education is no longer tenable for learning purposes, just as the line drawn at twenty-one is no longer tenable for separating the boys from the political men. For the mobilization and deployment of teachers, campuses, curricula, money, and other learning resources, we should look at time in terms of humans rather than in terms of rigid institutional accommodations of humans. Institutional assumptions about life styles, learning-capacity rates, the prior experiences and future aspirations of people run counter to the ways both students and teachers really are. Our institutions assume that almost everyone is motivated by the same things at the same time. Our academic programs, the criteria used to admit people to and evaluate their performance in them, link success to homogenized conformity. Among our programmatic offerings there is as much variety and real difference in substance as there is in the department where Macy's sells television sets to its customers. In Macy's department and in the collectivity of ours, there is but the flickering illusion of choice. But unlike our clients, Macy's customers may use time to their own advantage. If they are misled, cheated, or sold a defective machine, they may finally take their business elsewhere without fear that Macy's will issue a certified transcript to Gimbel, Lord & Taylor, or Bloomingdale that they, the customers, have screwed things up.

New institutional accommodations of formal learning time must be invented. One possibility is a learning framework ensuring continuity for a seven- or eight-year period between ages twelve or thirteen and twenty or twenty-one. But a rational adjustment of this kind will force a restructuring of what is now called junior high school as well as of the high school and of the internal functioning of what we call college. About the latter, the credit-hour time grid must be broken. But this change requires a different view of the organization of knowledge and the ways that "students" may be exposed to it. At the college level there is nothing magic about two years or four years, except the magic of institutional habit.

Different people learn at different paces. Prior individual life-experience counts for a lot. Life is not organized for most as enforced extended periods of contemplation as opposed to action. Learning is both disciplined and undisciplined, contemplative and active, and the components are naturally mixed up. Each person picks up a book and then puts it aside according to his own circumstances and style. Each gets whatever he does out of the book—or his perception of anything else—according to the state of *his* receptivity and capacity to perceive. There is nothing dishonorable in this variability among people. Only our rigid institutional approach to people has made this natural variability dishonorable. We honor conformity, shouting our alarm about the dissent.

Space

Our institutional prejudices about learning time are matched by those about learning space. Learning space is organized according to the principles for organizing urban ghettos. There is a proper place and time for everything and everybody, and it is assumed that we know where and when they are. We have built walls around them and programed the entire campus along the principles for programing the typical classroom, in rows with a blackboard and an authoritative desk in front. Finally, we have assumed for the whole campus an authority tantamount to that accorded to the teacher in the classroom.

Just as the classrooms have become more crowded, subverting conversation, discussion, and free exchange, lengthening the distance between teacher and taught, between those with authority and those subject to it, so campus conditions have become subversive of conversation, discussion, free exchange, and responsible contact between those in authority and those subject to it.

Once learning space is turned into a ghetto, those in charge of it will want those living in it to conform to the ghetto's way of life. They will favor talent, mobilize and use it, qualify and credential it with that in mind. In the modern city the university cannot possibly monopolize all of the best talents and places for learning. Often the best workshops for learning in the city—and the best teachers—will be found on the streets beyond the campus walls, in the theaters and museums, the industrial laboratories and the offices of government, the financial centers, and in so many other places. But the ghetto economy and mentality, tenured by the ranks, isolated and aloof, do not easily accommodate the use of these places and talents. The outlook of the ghetto toward what there is to know and how people learn is against such integration. The outlook of the ghetto essentially is monopolistic.

Having left the streets of Bologna centuries ago for the illusory safety of Oxford's fortress, the contemporary university finds itself once again facing the risks and dangers, the rich knowledge and learning opportunities of the streets. The state of our knowledge and the urban spirit of our society in effect amount to antitrust legislation. Fundamentally, the American aspiration is against the ghetto, against monopoly.

Content

The demolition of the walls around time and space is a first step toward the renewal of the learning community. Regarding the engagement of talent and the use of resources, the demolition of the academic ghetto means a redistribution of powers so that people may be *free* to learn.

The obligations routinely placed on the American citizen assume that knowledge and learning will guide his conduct far beyond his institutionalization for formal education. As a worker and a producer-consumer, as a voter and the head of a family, a premium is placed upon the citizen's intelligence, his *continuing* capacity to learn, to bring reason to bear upon his decisions. Indeed, life experience itself, properly explored and understood, is an educational force, a curriculum around which knowledge can be organized, as powerful as any contrived system for formal education. Ideally, the formal educational years are meant merely to incubate a capacity and a desire for life-long learning.

The adult ideal in America is a life of work *and* learning, of thinking *and* acting, of testing knowledge *through conduct*, an ideal too often unrealized and dishonored in those institutions through which we provide formal education for young adults. We have taken a very narrow view of where knowledge is and how it may be approached. It is as if we have become so bedazzled by methods for classifying knowledge in a library that the highly structured systems for recalling knowledge have become the primary purposes of learning rather than accommodations of it. Too often our institutions imprison the knowledge (just as academic libraries imprison the books) rather than setting it free.

Talent is differentiated and rewarded differently for many purposes in the larger American society. But in America *commingling* is normal and desirable. We expect the younger and the older to live and work together, the black and the white, the artisan and the professional, the artist and the businessman. Finally, at least officially, we do aspire to integration. We no longer can tolerate schools and colleges, knowledge and experience, organized and operated according to the principle of segregation. Our learning programs and places should bring people and things together, not only because integration is a more desirable way of life, but also because bringing things together is more conducive to learning.

We must invent new ways to put the young in the decision-making workshops of the country as a part of their formal education. We must discover new programs to demonstrate how the knowledge, tightly departmentalized and disciplined, bears upon the solution of problems which do not conform to the politics of the departments or the rationality of the disciplines. We must restore opportunities for the younger and the older to work and learn together. And we must do these things, deeply respecting the worth of different talents, the dignity of variety, the compatibility and symmetry that can emerge out of human diversity.

Finally, it would be a rather good thing if we could bring ourselves to be a little less condescending toward and resentful of the meaning of being younger.

> *He had entered the college but six weeks before, anxious, angry, and uptight. He had come from Harlem and Vietnam—a dropout, except on the college he had dropped in. Elected chairman of the black students' organization, he was calling on the president of the college to serve his various and sundry notices. I asked him what he was learning. He said that, at the street academy uptown where they had fixed up his English and his math so that he could get in, they had told him over and over again that if he ever got in he should Listen. "Listen," they said. "That's the way to get through."*
>
> *"I've listened," he said, "and man, I've learned something around here! This faculty of yours—nobody has ever taught them to listen."*

In our struggle to get through all this, maybe we should listen, just a little bit more.

APPENDIX F

CASE STUDY

The Institute for College and
University Administrators

SHEFFIELD COMMUNITY COLLEGE

BACKGROUND AND SETTING

Sheffield Community College opened in 1957, as the first two-year institution to be sponsored by the Board of Higher Education under the new community college law of the state. A fully-accredited, co-educational institution offering Associate degrees in Arts and Science, as well as the Associate in Applied Science, Sheffield is a unit of Metropolitan University occupying a new modern campus in the Sunnydale section of Metropolis since 1968.

Sheffield's original and continuing purpose, in the community college tradition, has been "meeting a substantial educational need in the community." Its commitment is to "a comprehensive, diversified educational program designed to prepare its graduates for vocational skills, responsible citizenship, social dignity, and enjoyment of a productive and satisfying life."

Sunnydale itself, with an area of 17 square miles, became a subdivision of Metropolis in 1948. Historically a collection of disparate communities, these local differences, along with the tradition of being a relatively autonomous political unit, have given its residents, largely Italian Catholic, not only a sense of insularity, but of conservatism. Within the past ten years, Sunnydale's population has increased from approximately 90,000 to almost 150,000 inhabitants. An increasing proportion of the new residents are members of minority groups.

Originally Sheffield was conceived as a two-year institution which in time would possibly expand into a four-year program. Later, Winchester College, an experimental public upper-division and graduate institution, was established in Sunnydale, with the expectation that Sheffield would continue as the lower-division college, while Winchester, also as a unit of Metropolitan University, would provide advanced higher education, particularly for students from Sunnydale.

Today, Sheffield has an enrollment of over 3,000 students, with a large proportion of the more than half graduating from the college-transfer program continuing their education at Winchester College or other units of the tuition-free Metropolitan University. All of Sheffield's students commute to campus, about 60 percent coming from Sunnydale. More than three-quarters of the students are the first in their families to seek higher education. The College has about 170 full-time faculty members and an administrative staff of 22. About one-third of the faculty and administrative staff members reside in the Sunnydale section.

Coincident with the dedication of the new Sunnydale campus at commencement ceremonies in June of 1969, the President of Sheffield announced his intention to retire from the post he had held since the College's founding 12 years earlier. A few months later his successor was appointed - Dr. Harold M. Sheppley, a forty-four-year old, white, liberal educator with a national reputation for innovative approaches to urban higher education.

A product of the University of Chicago under Robert Hutchins, Sheppley was one of the founding fathers of the National Student Association; he had served as a Dean of Students, Dean of the College for Social Research, Provost of Elizabeth University, and President of the Education Affiliate of the Haydon Development and Services Corporation in Metropolis. Author of several books and articles about how the minority-group poor have been deprived of their rightful share of the societal benefits that should have resulted from America's abundant productivity and affluence, Sheppley's reputation and an awareness of his philosophies preceded him to the presidency.

President Sheppley was selected to head Sheffield by a special committee of the Board of Higher Education of Metropolitan University. The Board knew the man they selected probably better than most presidential selection committees, not only because of his extensive writings, but because he had previously attempted to implement some of his innovative "urban-education" ideas as provost of nearby Elizabeth University. His intent had been to strengthen the undergraduate program by making it more responsive to the needs of the local, middle- and low-income community, and particularly of the black ghetto residents, by enlisting them as "partners in their own renewal."

Elizabeth University's President, however, believed that institutional resources would be better applied toward enhancing the size and quality of the entire University. A close-in academic battle ensued, with Sheppley, after a student strike on his behalf and several months of renitence, finally tendering his resignation. He subsequently served as head of the college planning program in Haydon, a part of the massive restoration effort for that community, until his selection as President of Sheffield in the summer of 1969.

Given his reputation, Harold Sheppley came to Sheffield Community College with an apparent license to begin the process of implementing some of his experimental ideas by helping the institution adapt to a new societal role. Feeling that neither the modern city nor the university was fulfilling its promise of pluralism, mobility, and choice, but that instead they were becoming static, segregated islands of anger and alienation, his position was that education must be the common denominator, that the university must become a more integral part of the community, and the community part of the university, so that all who are concerned may share in the decisions and the processes through which a better life may be attained. Openness, flexibility, and mobility were the keys. The most sanguine element of hope, he thought, were the students, and the most promising tool . . . dialogue.

Sheffield was a good community college. It had made considerable progress during its calm twelve-year history. If it was a static, traditional-minded institution, it may not have realized it until Harold Sheppley became its second president. He came with an assistant of like mind. Together, and with the help of new staff members who were attracted to the institution because of his educational philosophy and his ideals, they began, in their own words, "to stir up the place."

EVENTS OF THE FIRST ACADEMIC YEAR

The new president, from all indications, made a generally good initial impression with his constituencies. Eventually, there would be those who would express some reservations about his philosophies, question, if only tacitly, his more sweeping proposals for reform, take pause at the pace of his proposed academic innovations, and even perhaps wonder just where that hazy line between dedication and ambition might be drawn. But Harold Sheppley would prove determined. With an "open door" policy for any and all who might have a suggestion, problem, or grievance, and with dedication to the principle of "telling it like it is," he would persevere in setting the "process" in motion, the first step in meeting the all-important challenge.

His first "confrontation" was with the president of the Black Student Union, a graduate of the streets of Watts, who walked into the office of the new president and laid it on the line. He and his friends thought they liked what they had heard, and would play according to the rules of the game at least for a while *if* the president was really sincere and could do the job, but they doubted how responsive the faculty would be to the anticipated reforms. There are very few of them, he told Sheppley, "who even know how to *listen* to new ideas."

In November of 1969, two months after he assumed the presidency, he invited his faculty to an off-campus retreat to discuss the values and professional convictions of Sheffield Community College. Many of the participants discovered how surprisingly little they actually knew their own colleagues. Some began to better appreciate the importance of a relationship between the classroom and the community. Most came to know their new president a little better. The conference raised some hopes and enhanced the pride and dedication of some. It generated anxieties in others.

A month later the students held their own conference, the Waupaca student retreat. The brainchild of the editor of the student newspaper, the conference was to discuss the Sheffield curriculum, among other things. Members of the administration and faculty were invited to attend. Some students lamented the rigidities and routines of their college experience, and indicated their impatience with the established machinery for achieving change. The President expressed his empathy, explained the limitations of his own powers and the complexities of academic change, but highlighted some of the changes that he hoped they might look forward to at Sheffield.

Soon after returning to campus, Sheppley felt both perplexed and encouraged. Many of the Waupaca conference students and some faculty were breaking communication with him which he attributed to his inability to implement some of their proposed changes immediately. He later learned that they had two basic reservations: (1) they wondered how the total system, which had created the problem, could solve the problem when so doing might threaten the system's existence; and (2) some felt that it was Sheppley's show, and that they were more conveniences to an end than they were instruments of change itself. On the encouraging side, however, there were others who were urging him to tell them what he wanted.

Sensing a need for "the challenge of fresh debates, the reexamination of *everything*, the stimulus of controversy about the important things we do," the president decided to take a major step. As the chief academic officer, he knew that he had to provide the leadership, but, in his own words, "I wanted to lead without dictating." His goal was to encourage all to think openly about possible changes at Sheffield Community College.

At his faculty meeting the following month, President Sheppley announced that effective in January 1970, he was establishing "six campus-wide commissions, each devoted to specific agenda concerned with future plans for the College and/or the delineation of collegiate policy." After consultation with deans, faculty members, and student leaders, he would appoint a faculty member as chairman and a student as vice-chairman of each commission. These two would select the 10 to 15 student and faculty members to comprise their respective commissions.

He would give each commission an agenda and a timetable, though also the widest latitude in its own operation. He would assign administrators to the groups as resource people, but *not* as voting members. The work of the commissions would be reviewed in late spring at a joint meeting of the faculty and the Student Government, and the commissions would be reformed and charged again each fall at a similar joint faculty-student meeting.

At the same faculty meeting, Sheppley announced the establishment of a Presidential Cabinet, charged with "the development of plans for the future of this College, and the delineation and review of policy." The commissions were to report to the cabinet, which would then refer recommendations "to the appropriate established bodies on the campus for evaluation and implementation." The cabinet's membership would be comprised of the commission chairmen and vice-chairmen, the faculty delegate to the Metropolitan University Senate, two elected faculty members, the Student Government president, an elected member of the non-instructional staff, and *ex officio,* all deans, the fiscal officer, and certain other administrative personnel.

Before concluding, the President made it quite clear that "if what we have set in motion here today does not work, we will not force it. We can always try something else. We can always restore the status quo."

The process had been set in motion.

THE PROGRESS OF THE COMMISSIONS

The six commissions which President Sheppley established, and a synopsis of their first-year concerns and recommendations are as follows:

1. Campus Planning.
   Charged to study present and future space requirements, this Commission recommended certain institutional construction projects, the acquisition of a branch campus, acquiring available space in the geographical area for expansion of health-oriented programs, and class rescheduling to better utilize existing facilities.

2. Urban Programs.
   Concerned with the problems encountered by minority students newly arrived at Sheffield, this Commission concentrated on a program for returning Vietnam veterans, a program to encourage high school dropouts to continue their education, and generally the encouragement of disadvantaged students, especially through the Community Scholar Program, to seek a place at Sheffield. Among other projects, it successfully recommended the establishment of a Black and Mexican-American Cultural and Social Center at the College. It further recommended an Afro-American Cultural Fair, removal of the fence surrounding the campus, a one-year vocational certificate program, and the integration of Black Studies into the existing College curriculum (a move that would have been undreamed of a year earlier).

3. Evening Curricula and the Education of Adults.

Involving itself closely with representatives of the community through a citizen's advisory group, this Commission suggested bolstering the evening session program, liberalizing curriculum credit requirements, more closely cooperating with local cultural organizations, creating a Communications Skills Center, and establishing extension centers in other areas of Sunnydale.

4. Humanities and the Arts.

Responsible mainly for a re-examination of the career and transfer programs, this Commission proposed the formation of a new Division of Performing and Creative Arts and certain modifications to the humanities requirements of technical students. It discouraged the establishment of a proposed program in Museum and Parks/Recreation technology on evidence of lack of sufficient demand and need.

5. Academic Programs.

Charged with the task of formulating its own agenda, this Commission recommended strengthening the curricular requirements for the Associate Degree, establishing baccalaureate programs in engineering and medical technology, and awarding academic credit for certain non-classroom educational experiences.

6. Government, Faculty, and Students.

Consideration of student and faculty roles in appropriate and important decision-making bodies was the task of this Commission. A three-day workshop in June, 1970, resulted in the affirmation of student collaboration in the governance of the College, and recommended the formation of a Faculty-Student Senate at Sheffield, to also include representation from the full-time, *non*-tenured faculty.

At the time he set up the commissions, President Sheppley was enthusiastic about the idea, believing they would provide an appropriate means for effecting change and channeling energies at Sheffield. Nonetheless, he realized that there would be some skepticism and some apathy.

Although the commissions performed quite well during their first year under the circumstances, some of their members and others proffered insightful comments, identifying certain obstacles to what might have been a more involved and effective effort:

1. There were a few faculty members who had doubts because the president had originated the proposal himself. Some others were disappointed that the commission chairmen and vice-chairmen had been initially appointed by the president rather than being elected.

2. Some of the faculty members on the commissions apparently had reservations about the new equal voice given to students, and the open-forum nature of the commission meetings. On the one hand, they wondered whether students were ready to assume such major responsibility; on the other, they felt somewhat apprehensive.

3. A general feeling among part of the faculty was that the commissions were perhaps duplicating the efforts of existing faculty committees, and indeed, might actually be "working around" and in competition with these established groups.

4. One of the major problems faced by the commissions was the decline of interest on the part of some of the members. Students, all of whom commuted to campus, although sympathetic with the objectives, were busy with their studies, extracurricular responsibilities, family life, and outside jobs. Some could not get enthused about changes which to them did not seem relevant since their two years at Sheffield were almost over. Others simply presupposed futility, particularly when many of the ills they wanted to correct had their roots in the greater society.

5. Some of the faculty members also lost interest. They were too busy with their own teaching loads, or were too complacent, not wanting to risk rocking the boat, especially in areas where vested interests might be threatened. Tenured faculty were the most conservative, while some of the younger were reluctant to risk offending their senior colleagues. (Most faculty members were themselves products of Metropolitan University or other Metropolis institutions.)

6. Another serious problem faced by the commissions was deciding on their own action priorities - focusing clearly on the issues at hand, preserving the integrity of ideas, considering the implications of alternative courses, and actually making the priority recommendations in light of the best interests of all concerned as well as feasibility.

One significant by-product of the faculty's skepticism was an unprecedented faculty-established "Committee on Educational Change" to explore the possibilities for innovation in the College. In effect, this elected five-man committee served as a "watch dog" on the commissions and the presidential cabinet and became the unofficial spokesman for the Sheffield faculty, a position it would probably maintain until the proposed Faculty-Student Senate was formed.

But the most important result of the events of the first year was the involvement of the constituencies of Sheffield Community College as they grew slowly to realize that academic change *was* perhaps desirable, maybe even necessary, and that they not only *could*, but indeed, *should* have a part in planning and carrying out change. To be sure, there were obstacles, but these were offset by other encouraging signs.

For example, some of the more militant, radical students, once they realized that they too had a *real* voice in effecting significant changes in the College and the community, also became involved. They had a right, a responsibility, and an acceptable platform for some of their philosophies, and they provided invaluable input to the total process.

President Sheppley felt pleased. The process had indeed been set in motion. Those who had their doubts about change were beginning to realize that if they didn't move with it, they might be buried under it! The Presidential Cabinet was serving the College well, dealing with both urgent and long-range problems. Granted, there were times when his own cabinet had overruled him. But this too was part of the process.

THE INAUGURATION

President Sheppley launched his second year with his inaugural address in which he boldly suggested that "two-year" colleges may have outlived their usefulness in America's big cities. Building on his earlier themes, he denounced the traditional credit-hour system as being "obsolete" to today's needs, and then proceeded to propose "a new kind of college for your new urban society." This new college would represent "a new amalgam" of educational resources, and a "total integration" of races, cultures, classes, life styles, and knowledge. It would award degrees based on a student's own ability to progress, and not on the rigid requirement of time. It would provide an education for all who sought it, and it would allow the student an opportunity to participate in the decision-making process and to build his own learning experience. And then . . . he suggested that Sheffield Community College should *itself* become the prototype of that "new kind of college."

The following month he addressed the faculty and detailed some of his proposals - the conversion of Sheffield into a comprehensive, pilot, experimental four-year college, to offer not only the Associate degree, but certificates undertaken through joint programs with secondary schools, and the bachelors degree, initially in selected fields. The faculty was impressed, excited, proud, anxious, but still somewhat skeptical.

There had been no experience of any real campus activism at Sheffield, mainly attributable no doubt to the nature of the commuting student body. Most of them represented the first generation in their families to attend college and therefore they were more tolerant of authority and receptive to conditions as they existed. In the spring of 1970 the issue of obscenity in a student newspaper had arisen, but the President, in his inimitable "tell it like it is" style, reasoned with the student editors about the public relations consequences, and the problem soon solved itself.

In the fall of 1970, sometime after his inaugural speech, Sheppley found himself confronted by some 500 students, but they turned out to be demonstrating *in favor* of his proposal for a four-year technical degree program!

December, however, brought another student confrontation, this time a group of only 40 students, but the issue was a much more serious one. They were angry because a plain-clothes policeman had come to the student lounge earlier that day to arrest three students on the charge of selling drugs. They had marched to the President's office to find out what could be done to keep police off the campus.

Sheppley invited them into his office and opened the issue up for discussion. He explained that in his position as a public officer he must stand for the law of the land; he could not obstruct the proper activities of the police. Respecting his sincerity and appreciating his position and his willingness to discuss it, they departed quietly and orderly.

In the spring of 1971, a review of the special programs implemented during 1970 indicated encouraging progress. "Identity '70," an educational program to prepare returning Vietnam veterans for college, with admission offered at Sheffield, was considered so successful that it was being emulated around the nation. The Community Scholar Program, which helps prepare high school dropouts for college, and the Higher Education Opportunity Program, which provides counseling, tutoring, and funds to help disadvantaged students remain in college, had both made rare opportunities available to young people. All of these programs were substantially increasing the College's minority enrollment; by spring of 1971, about fifteen percent of its students were black.

The Title I Consortium had provided instruction and recreation for disadvantaged families in Sunnydale, while an experimental workshop to reduce student deficiencies was being offered to probation students. Other programs in operation during the spring of 1971 included classes for former drug addicts, a Civil Service Institute for city employees who worked revolving shifts, and a Regional Opportunity Center to provide job-training programs for the unemployed.

Earlier in the spring, the President's Task Force had completed its Report on Special Programs planned for incoming students in 1971-72, the first year of open admissions in the Metropolitan University system. The underlying purpose of these plans was to "personalize" the college experience and provide the new student with the maximum opportunity for individual growth by helping him tailor his learning program to his own unique needs. Each student would be part of a special unit with a certain number of other students where he would receive individualized counseling and academic advisement, with minimal administrative constrictions. All courses, whether taken for credit or not, would satisfy degree requirements.

Coincident with this Task Force Report, President Sheppley received word from the Metropolitan City Parks Commissioner that Sheffield Community College was to be given the city park contiguous with the campus so that the College could expand its existing facilities and programs. It thus appeared probable that Harold Sheppley, with the architectural plans for "Sheffield Learning City" already on his desk, was well on the way toward building his "new kind of college," one that would not only flow gradually yet dynamically into the community, but which one day, he hoped, would be indistinguishable from the lives and aspirations of the community it had become.

APPENDIX G

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
ONE DUPONT CIRCLE
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20036

THE INSTITUTE FOR COLLEGE
AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

(202) 833-4780

November 1, 1971

MEMORANDUM

TO: Participants in the Chicago Session of the Institute for Academic Deans

FROM: Charles F. Fisher, Program Director

SUBJECT: Attitude Questionnaire

Attached is a brief attitude questionnaire which we ask you to complete at this time. Please answer all of the items by circling the appropriate letter; you will note that one of the options provides for "no opinion" or "undecided."

Your responses are to be used only for research on the effectiveness of the Institute methods, and will be kept entirely confidential, so please be completely candid. For accounting purposes, however, it is important that you note your participant number (from the cover of your Institute portfolio) in the upper right hand corner of the questionnaire.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Attachment

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
ONE DUPONT CIRCLE
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20036

THE INSTITUTE FOR COLLEGE
AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

(202) 833-4780

November 3, 1971

MEMORANDUM

TO: Participants in the Chicago Session of the Institute for Academic Deans

FROM: Charles F. Fisher, Program Director

Attached is a copy of the attitude questionnaire which you filled out on Monday. At this time we ask you to respond once more to all of the statements by noting which of the options best represents your present attitude.

Remember to record your participant number in the upper right hand corner. And please be assured that your responses will be kept entirely confidential and are to be used for research purposes only.

Again, thank you very much for your cooperation.

Attachment

ACADEMIC DEANS ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please *circle the letter* of the option following each numbered statement which *best* represents your feeling or attitude about the statement. Thank you.

1. Increasing the "quantity" of American higher education need not sacrifice our present overall "quality."
    - A. It definitely would not.
    - B. It need not, and most probably would not.
    - C. It need not, and I am somewhat confident it would not.
    - D. It need not, but it possibly would.
    - E. I am undecided.
    - F. It probably would.
    - G. It definitely would.
2. Providing higher educational opportunity for all who can benefit is a legitimate goal of U.S. society.
    - A. Enthusiastically agree.
    - B. Strongly agree with negligible reservations.
    - C. Moderately agree with minor reservations.
    - D. Slightly agree with moderate reservations.
    - E. Neutral or no opinion.
    - F. Disagree; I have major reservations.
    - G. Strongly disagree; I have critical reservations.
3. One of the major obstacles to providing appropriate educational opportunity for everyone is that our traditional uses of knowledge within higher education have been directed toward confirmation of the political and cultural status quo, of perpetuating the socio-economic distinction between the "have" and "have-not" classes.
    - A. This definitely has been *the* major obstacle.
    - B. This probably has been *the* major obstacle.
    - C. This has been *one* of *the* major obstacles.
    - D. This has been a minor obstacle among others.
    - E. Neutral or no opinion.
    - F. This probably has not been a real obstacle.
    - G. This definitely has not been an obstacle.

4. The process of providing truly meaningful higher education for our students is inseparable from the constructive involvement of American academic institutions in some of the social problems of both the local and the larger community.

   A. Such involvement is *essential* to meaningful student learning.

   B. Such involvement is *very important* to meaningful student learning.

   C. Such involvement is *moderately important* to meaningful student learning.

   D. Such involvement is *slightly important* to meaningful student learning.

   E. I am undecided.

   F. Such involvement is *probably not* important to meaningful student learning.

   G. Such involvement is *definitely not* important to meaningful student learning.

5. An institution of higher learning has a responsibility to be involved in effecting desirable social change by making its curriculum more responsive to the needs of all segments of its community - of all classes and all races.

   A. This is a necessary responsibility of *every* institution of higher learning.

   B. This is a necessary responsibility for *some* institutions, desirable for others.

   C. This is a desirable responsibility for all institutions.

   D. This is a desirable responsibility for some, but of less importance for other institutions.

   E. Neutral or no opinion.

   F. This is not a particularly important responsibility for most institutions.

   G. The academic institution is responsible only to itself and the clientele it chooses.

6. The curriculum too long has been confined within the walls of the institution and within the classroom; action and interaction in and with the learning resources of the community should become an integral opportunity in the curriculum of every college student.

   A. The curriculum, the institution, and the community should be indistinguishable.

   B. It is very *important* that the curriculum include the learning resources of the community.

   C. It is very *desirable* that the curriculum include the learning resources of the community.

   D. It is *probably* desirable that the curriculum include the learning resources of the community.

(Options continued next page)

E. I am undecided.

F. It is not particularly important that the curriculum include the learning resources of the community.

G. Sound curriculum belongs within the institution and should not be dissipated into the community.

7. Life experience itself, properly explored and understood, can provide the basis for a meaningful curriculum around which knowledge can be organized and developed.

A. Enthusiastically agree.

B. Strongly agree with negligible reservations.

C. Moderately agree with minor reservations.

D. Slightly agree with moderate reservations.

E. Neutral or no opinion.

F. Disagree; I have major reservations.

G. Strongly disagree; I have critical reservations.

8. Students should be "partners" in planning their own curriculum so that the learning experience will be more relevant to them.

A. Students should have the *major* and *final* say in planning their own curriculum.

B. Students should have the *major* say, *subject to approval*, in planning their own curriculum.

C. Students should have an *equal* say in planning their own curriculum.

D. Students should have *some input* in planning their own curriculum.

E. I am undecided.

F. Students should have *little role* in planning their curriculum.

G. Students should have *no role* in planning their curriculum.

9. Since different people learn at different paces, intellectual accomplishment and competence, and not the traditional yardstick of credit-hours and time-in-residence, should be the main criteria both for admission to an academic program and for earning a scholarly degree.

A. Enthusiastically agree.

B. Strongly agree with negligible reservations.

C. Moderately agree with minor reservations.

D. Slightly agree with moderate reservations.

E. I am undecided.

F. Disagree; I have major reservations.

G. Strongly disagree; I have critical reservations.

10. We must change some of our traditional attitudes in higher education and focus our energies on the legitimate need for and means of accomplishing desirable changes in our present curricular policies and programs.

    A. Enthusiastically agree.

    B. Strongly agree with negligible reservations.

    C. Moderately agree with minor reservations.

    D. Slightly agree with moderate reservations.

    E. Neutral or no opinion.

    F. Major curricular reforms probably are not in order.

    G. Major curricular reforms definitely are not in order.

11. Effective change within the academic institution cannot be imposed; it can be accomplished only if there is a climate receptive to change among all who are affected by it.

    A. Effective change requires the complete acceptance of *all* who are affected.

    B. Effective change requires the complete acceptance of *most* of those affected, and certainly conditional acceptance by the rest.

    C. Effective change requires *some* acceptance by *all* who are affected.

    D. Effective change requires *some* acceptance by at least *some* of those affected.

    E. Neutral or no opinion.

    F. Acceptance of change may be helpful, but probably is not necessary.

    G. Acceptance of change is unlikely to be either helpful or necessary.

12. Those who have the greatest power to effect or facilitate needed changes seem to be the ones who, knowingly or not, tend to present the greatest resistance to change.

    A. This always seems to be the case.

    B. This frequently seems to be the case.

    C. This fairly often seems to be the case.

    D. This sometimes seems to be the case.

    E. Neutral or no opinion.

    F. This seldom seems to be the case.

    G. This never seems to be the case.

13. Resistance to change can usually be attributed to vested interests and/or the threat - real or imaginary - to the security of the individuals affected by the change.

    A. This definitely is the major obstacle to change.

    B. This usually is the major obstacle to change.

    C. This is *one* of the major obstacles to change.

    D. This is one minor obstacle among others.

    E. Neutral or no opinion.

    F. This probably is not a real obstacle.

    G. This definitely is not an obstacle.

14. In higher education we traditionally have considered implementing major change only under duress.

    A. Very strongly agree.

    B. Agree with negligible exceptions.

    C. Moderately agree with minor exceptions.

    D. Slightly agree with moderate exceptions.

    E. Neutral or no opinion.

    F. Disagree; there are major exceptions.

    G. Strongly disagree; this has seldom been the case.

15. In effecting change which is generally recognized as beneficial and desirable, the ends at times may justify the means, even when it may seem to be disadvantageous to some.

    A. If beneficial to the *small majority*, the ends justify the disadvantage of the minority.

    B. If beneficial to the *moderate majority*, the ends justify the disadvantage of the minority.

    C. If beneficial to the *great majority*, the ends justify the disadvantage of the small minority.

    D. If beneficial to *almost all*, the ends justify the disadvantage of a few.

    E. I am undecided.

    F. Even if beneficial, the ends *seldom* justify the disadvantage of the minority.

    G. Even if beneficial, the ends *never* justify the disadvantage of any individual.

16. Truly effective change in higher education must penetrate the very root of tradition; it must be more "revolutionary" than "evolutionary."

    A. Very strongly agree.
    B. Agree with negligible reservations.
    C. Moderately agree with minor reservations.
    D. Slightly agree with moderate reservations.
    E. Neutral or no opinion.
    F. Disagree; I have major reservations.
    G. Strongly disagree; I have critical reservations.

17. Dynamic leadership is essential in the process of bringing about truly effective major change in the academic institution.

    A. It is always essential.
    B. It is usually essential and always helpful.
    C. It is sometimes essential and always helpful.
    D. It is usually desirable and helpful.
    E. Neutral or no opinion.
    F. It is not essential, nor necessarily helpful.
    G. It is neither essential nor helpful.

18. Different styles of leadership may be necessary to effect needed major changes in a given college or university during different periods in its development.

    A. Very strongly agree.
    B. Agree with negligible reservations.
    C. Moderately agree with minor reservations.
    D. Slightly agree with moderate reservations.
    E. Neutral or no opinion.
    F. Disagree.
    G. Strongly disagree.

APPENDIX H

ROSTER OF SUBJECTS BY INSTITUTION

ANDREWS UNIVERSITY Michigan	Dwain L. Ford Dean of the College
ART INSTITUTE OF CHICAGO, THE SCHOOL OF THE Illinois	Roger Gilmore Dean
BARBER-SCOTIA COLLEGE North Carolina	Mable P. McLean Academic Dean
BARRY COLLEGE Florida	Sister Rita Schaefer Academic Dean
BELLEVUE COLLEGE Nebraska	Ralph G. K. Beach Academic Dean
BERRY COLLEGE Georgia	William C. Moran Academic Dean
BRIARCLIFF COLLEGE New York	Walter Chizinsky Dean of Faculty
C. W. POST COLLEGE, LONG ISLAND UNIVERSITY New York	Richard Lettis Executive Dean
CALIFORNIA STATE COLLEGE, DOMINGUEZ HILLS California	Franklin R. Turner Dean of Undergraduate Studies, Acting Dean of Graduate Studies
COKER COLLEGE South Carolina	Edwin G. Speir, Jr. Dean of the College
COTTEY COLLEGE Missouri	Robert J. Glass Dean of the College
ERSKINE COLLEGE South Carolina	Robert K. Ackerman Vice President for Academic and Student Affairs
HAMLINE UNIVERSITY Minnesota	Kenneth L. Janzen Vice President for Academic Affairs and Dean of the University

INDIANA STATE UNIVERSITY Indiana	Howard D. Richardson Dean, School of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation
JUNIATA COLLEGE Pennsylvania	Wilfred G. Norris Dean of the College
KING'S COLLEGE Pennsylvania	Rudolf Schleich Academic Dean
LAREDO JUNIOR COLLEGE Texas	Michael Saenz Academic Dean
LORETTO HEIGHTS COLLEGE Colorado	Edward T. Clark, Jr. Academic Vice President
MIDDLE TENNESSEE STATE UNIVERSITY Tennessee	Delmar B. Pockat Dean, School of Education
MOREHOUSE COLLEGE Georgia	Willis J. Hubert Academic Dean
MOUNT ALOYSIUS JUNIOR COLLEGE Pennsylvania	James M. Salony Academic Dean
MOUNT MARY COLLEGE Wisconsin	Sister Patricia Ann Preston Academic Dean
NORTH CAROLINA A & T STATE UNIVERSITY North Carolina	S. Joseph Shaw Dean, School of Education
NORTH COUNTRY COMMUNITY COLLEGE New York	Dwight Milne Dean of the College
SAMFORD UNIVERSITY Alabama	Hugh C. Bailey Dean, College of Arts and Sciences
SAN JOSE CITY COLLEGE California	Gerald H. Strelitz Associate Superintendent
SEATTLE PACIFIC COLLEGE Washington	William D. Rearick Dean of Graduate Studies
SOUTHWEST TEXAS STATE UNIVERSITY Texas	W. E. Norris, Jr. Dean, College of Arts and Sciences
TARKIO COLLEGE Missouri	Lawrence L. Pattee Dean of the Faculty
TEXAS, THE UNIVERSITY OF, AT EL PASO Texas	Ray W. Guard Dean of Engineering

VILLANOVA UNIVERSITY . . . . Pennsylvania	James J. Markham Associate Dean for Sciences, College of Liberal Arts and Sciences
VIRGIN ISLANDS, COLLEGE OF THE . . . . Virgin Islands	Arthur A. Richards Provost and Dean
WESTMAR COLLEGE . . . . Iowa	John F. Courter Dean of the College
WESTMINSTER COLLEGE . . . . Pennsylvania	Phillip A. Lewis Dean of the College
WITTENBERG UNIVERSITY . . . . Ohio	Rene N. Ballard Dean of the College
WORCESTER STATE COLLEGE . . . . Massachusetts	Noel J. Reyburn Academic Dean

APPENDIX I

THE INSTITUTE for ACADEMIC DEANS

The University of Chicago - October 31 - November 5, 1971

PROGRAM EVALUATION FORM

Participant's Name________________________ Title________________________

Institution____________________________ Type: Public___ Four-year____

City and State__________________________ Private___ Two-year____

Please check any of these items which apply to your Institute experience:
Integrated with my experience and background_____
Provided a new and meaningful learning experience for me_____
Covered new, pertinent and helpful information_____
Covered information mostly familiar to me, but it was still helpful_____
The Institute was of little help to me_____

The primary value of the program (number in rank order):
_____Content (updating of information)
_____Methodology (including skills development)
_____Attitude change (sensitivity, philosophy)
_____Communication (understanding and communicating more effectively with others)
_____Other (please indicate)______________________________

Rate these characteristics of the Institute as follows:

A. Outstanding
B. Good to Excellent
C. Average
D. Poor

_____Effectiveness of scheduling
_____Group rapport
_____Lodging facilities
_____Food and Dining facilities

_____Learning atmosphere
_____Program content
_____Quality of speakers
_____Quality of case leaders

The length of the program was: Too long____ About right____ Too short____

The size of the group was: Too large____ About right____ Too small____

Composition of the group: Was the...
different size and types of institutions an advantage?_____ or handicap?_____
mix of public and private institutions an advantage?_____ or handicap?_____

Major strengths of the program______________________________

____

____

Most useful experiences__________________________________

____

____

Weaknesses____

____

CONTINUED

Comments on specific speakers, discussion leaders, and sessions__________

____

____

____

How helpful do you think the Institute experience will be to you in the performance of your job?

____Exceptionally
____Considerably
____Somewhat
____Have no idea
____Not particularly
____Not at all

Please explain________________________________

____

____

How fruitful or productive was the case method of presentation and discussion?

Very fruitful_____ Fairly fruitful_____ Not very fruitful_____

Please explain________________________________

____

Suggestions for improvement. Do you think the program would have been more helpful or meaningful for you if the following had been incorporated? Please explain.

More role-playing, simulation, and/or "confrontation" experiences?_____

____

Greater use of modern learning media--video tapes, films, cassettes, etc.?

____

Other techniques (e.g., "sensitivity training" sessions)?__________

____

Any other suggestions for improvement of the Institute?__________

____

____

____

____

Was the Institute worth the time that you devoted to it?__________

Was it worth the standard program fee?_____ In light of the fact that the program fee covered only 80% of the full cost, would you have considered it worth paying the remainder of the full cost to attend the Institute?

____

Other Comments________________________________

____

____

____

PLEASE COMPLETE AND RETURN THIS FORM PRIOR TO ADJOURNMENT OF INSTITUTE.

APPENDIX J

GUIDELINES FOR CONDUCTING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SEMINARS FOR COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS

- Planning should begin 9 to 12 months in advance, when the purpose, budget, nature, design, constituency, duration, and location are determined.
- Preferred conference site would be off-campus--away from distractions, exigencies of the job, and maybe even the telephone. It should be readily accessible, and yet somewhat "isolated."
- Duration should be no longer or shorter than necessary, desirable, and practicable--perhaps 2 to 5 days; when 5 days or longer, a half-day, midweek break is recommended.
- Participation should be limited and depends on the purpose and duration of the seminar. For maximum group interaction, dialogue, and acquaintance, 8 to 10 participants for each seminar day is optimal (i.e., from 40 to 50 for a five-day program). A diverse mix of ages, academic disciplines, and backgrounds often enriches the administrative seminar experience.
- Getting acquainted may be facilitated through brief biographic sketches, photograph brochures, name badges, and name tents (for seating); also group meals, coffee breaks, social hours, and other informal activities. Seating should be rearranged every one to two days. An open, informal atmosphere should be established at the very start and maintained throughout the seminar to promote maximum group dialogue.
- Program should incorporate participants' concerns, determined by an advance survey, in addition to other current and pertinent topics dealing with administrative issues and academic leadership. Program format and content should be kept flexible enough to adjust to participants' needs and concerns as they may develop during the seminar.
- Resource people should include outside experts; they should remain on hand for at least one-half day following their respective sessions to provide additional opportunity for discussion and interaction.
- Program should provide a balance of learning experiences--speakers (always with ample time for questions and discussion), seminars, perhaps a few case study discussions (preferably with some role playing), and small-group discussion sessions; audio-visual learning aids can be helpful, but should not be over-used with a sophisticated group.
- Each session should be limited to 90 minutes, beginning and ending on schedule; "in-class" time should range between 6 and 8 hours per day.
- Meeting room configuration should enable all participants to face one another. Seminar-style seating (around one table or a circle of tables) maximizes involvement and participation. A horseshoe-shaped table arrangement is desirable for case discussions, and conference-style seating with a herringbone table arrangement (preferably tiered) is suitable for groups of over 40 people.
- All participants should be asked to evaluate their conference experience and offer suggestions at the conclusion of the seminar.

PLANNING GUIDE FOR INSERVICE
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SEMINARS
IN ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION

Institution or Organization ____________________ State __________

Institutions: Enrollment ________ No. Dept./Div. Chairmen __________

No. Faculty _______ No. Full-Time Professional Administrators _______

For whom will this seminar be held, that is, who will the participants be?

____

____

How many participants are anticipated? ____________________

What is the primary purpose of this seminar? ____________________

____

____

____

What subjects, concerns, and issues should be covered? Please list in order of importance. ____________________

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

What is the planned duration of the seminar? ____________________

What sort of learning experiences should be included?

Speakers ________________ Rap Sessions ________________

Panels ________________ Simulations ________________

Seminars ________________ Audio-visual Effects ____________

Case Studies ______________ Sensitivity Training ____________

Other ______________________________________

____

The speakers and resource staff will primarily be . . . .

Local ______________ Regional ______________ National ______________

A combination of the above ______________________________

The seminar will be conducted . . . .

On campus ________________________ Off Campus ________________________

At a conference center ___________ At a commercial Facility _________

The financial support for this seminar is coming from __________________

____

____

What is the present direct-cost budget for the seminar? _________________

(Attach itemized planning budget.)

What is the maximum budget possible? ___________________________________

How much staff time and effort can be allocated to the planning and conduct of this seminar?

Professional ____

Secretarial ____

Is the seminar a one-time effort, or might there be follow-up or repeat seminars within the next year or so? ____________________________________

____

____

____

____

____

Where or with whom did the idea for this seminar originate? ____________

____

____

____

By whom has the idea for this seminar been discussed? endorsed? ________

____

____

____

Prepared by ___________________________________ Date ___________________

Title ____

CHECK-OFF LIST FOR

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SEMINARS

Sponsoring Institution/Organization ________________________________

Dates of Seminar ____

SITE ARRANGEMENTS: Facility Selected and Reserved . . . . ________

Lodging (number of single and double rooms) . . . . ________

Dining (group meals, menus, seating) . . . . ________

Coffees and Social Hours . . . . ________

Meeting Room Requirements (size and seating) . . . . ________

Instructional Equipment . . . . ________

Registration Procedures . . . . ________

Billing Arrangements . . . . ________

Acquiring Brochures and Other Information . . . . ________

Instructions for Shipping Materials . . . . ________

PROGRAM: Seminar Topics and Format Chosen . . . . ________

Preliminary Program Schedule Drafted . . . . ________

Speakers and Seminar Leaders Selected . . . . ________

Speakers and Seminar Leaders Invited . . . . ________

Staff and Assignments Confirmed . . . . ________

Instructional Materials Prepared and/or Ordered . . . . . ________

PUBLICITY: Program Announcement Printed . . . . ________

Letter of Invitation Prepared . . . . ________

Mailing Sent to Prospective Participants . . . . ________

PARTICIPANTS: Participants Selected and Notified . . . . ________

Requested Materials Received from Participants (fees, photos, surveys, etc.) . . . . . . ________

Roster of Participants Prepared . . . . ________

Final Program and Information Sent . . . . ________

Seminar Portfolios and Name Tags Prepared . . . . ________

SPEAKERS: Final Program and Information Sent . . . . ________

Biographic Data Obtained for Introductions . . . . ________

Arrival and Departure Times Noted and Necessary Transportation Arrangements Made . . . . ________

Honoraria and Thank-you Letters Mailed . . . . ________

APPENDIX K

ADMINISTRATIVE CASE WRITING GUIDELINES

DEFINITION: An administrative case is the written factual account of an authentic campus event, situation, and/or problem requiring discretionary administrative analysis and decision making.

TOPIC: Case-study situations are unlimited, though they should generally involve one or more major administrators--president, vice president, academic dean, chief fiscal officer, department chairman, and/or trustee--in a significant problem-solving situation which would have relevance for administrators from most any type and size of college or university.

CONTENT: Cases present facts; they do not make judgments. They should describe the setting, the circumstances, the people involved, the events, and provide any other information pertinent to the problem in the case. The personalities, pressures, and constraints are important to the realism of the case, but should be characterized as objectively as possible. When useful for reference, documents, newspaper articles, and the like might be appended as "attachments."

SEQUENCE: Typically, the first paragraph or two of the case will present a brief overview of the problem, perhaps describing a critical situation. This "involves" the reader in the case. The institutional setting might then be sketched, followed by other descriptive information, either in sequential form as the situation and events developed, or organized around the salient aspects of the problem. The facts should lead up to the major decision(s) to be made. Any final action actually taken, in some instances, may be incorporated in the text of the case; preferably, however, it would be presented in a brief supplement which could be distributed separately for group reaction after the case and the alternative solutions have been thoroughly analyzed and discussed.

STYLE: The case is a coherent prose description of a set of events (not unlike a short story). It must be written in such a way that it is open for thought, objective discussion, and the evaluation of action. The writer must select words which in no way reveal or even imply his own judgments. In order to describe personalities, antagonisms, and the like, it is therefore desirable, insofar as possible, to present incidents or include quotations that suggest the characteristic behavior and patterns of relationships of the major individuals in the case.

LENGTH AND FORM: Cases normally vary from about 1,500 to 4,000 words, depending on what is necessary to present in concise form a fairly complete picture of the actual situation. They should be sufficiently comprehensive to cover pertinent facts, but not so complex as to be confusing. It is helpful to the reader to have topical headings at appropriate points in the text.

DISGUISE: To protect the college and the persons involved, the names of places, people, buildings, departments, and the like should be changed, and sizes (e.g., enrollments, boards, endowments, etc.) may be altered up to 25%. A general rule of thumb is that any identifiable characteristics should be disguised, but not to the extent of significantly altering peculiar qualities or distinctive characteristics essential to the problem in the case. (This also helps during the discussion of the case by precluding any biases on the part of those who may have known about the institution's situation, thus giving all participants an equal opportunity for analysis and discussion.)

USE OF THE CASE: It may be helpful to bear in mind that the task of those who read and discuss case studies is to (a) identify the major problem or problems and the sub-problems, (b) examine the facts and evaluate the evidence, (c) weigh possible courses and feasibility of responsible alternative actions, (d) establish priorities, deciding what should be done, in what order, and by whom, and (e) determine the most effective means of implementing the desired action. The discussants also analyze the causal factors, how the problem(s) may have been avoided, and what might, or should, have been done differently. The task of the case writer is to provide the essential facts clearly and objectively!

PROCEDURE: Virtually anyone who has a knowledge of academic administration and some writing ability can write a case study. The first step in developing a case is for the writer to prepare a brief one page summary outline, which may be submitted, for example, to the Institute for College and University Administrators for reaction. Those cases subsequently developed for ICUA normally should be no longer than sixteen typed pages double-spaced (including any attachments). They may be submitted already disguised, though this is not a requirement. Often cases will be edited and at times additional clarifying information may be requested. The writer will always be asked to approve the final write-up before the case is used.